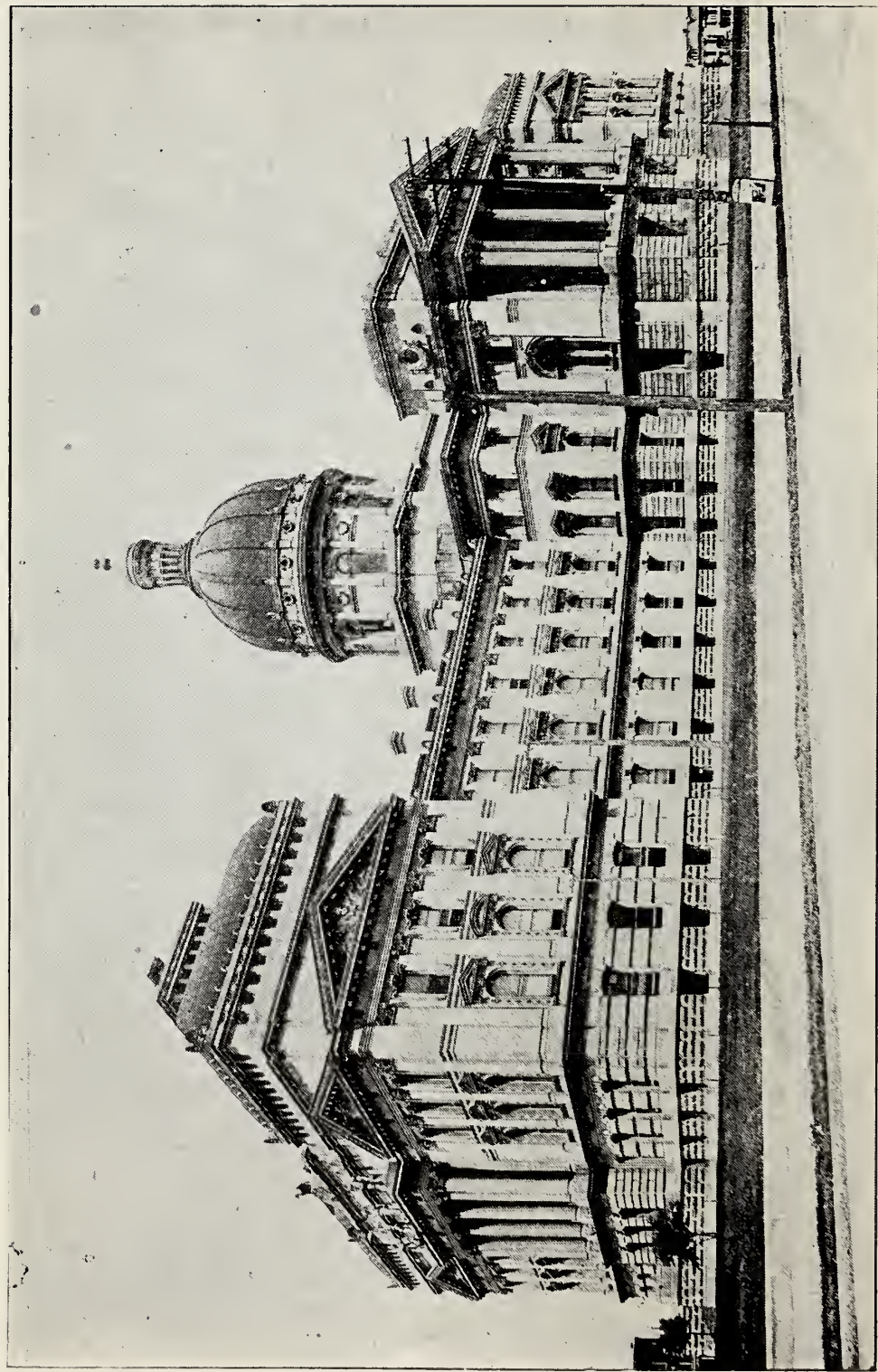




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THE CAPITOL OF INDIANA.


THE
YOUNG PEOPLE'S
HISTORY
OF
INDIANA

BY
JULIA S. CONKLIN

SIXTH EDITION

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BY
JULIA S. CONKLIN



DEDICATION.

To my nephews, Myron and Emil Cook,
and the little girl who tried so hard to
"be good" while auntie wrote this book.

"The winds of Heaven never fanned,
The circling sunlight never spanned
The borders of a fairer land
Than our own Indiana."

—*Sarah T. Bolton.*

A LETTER.

My Dear Young Friends: You have read of Aladdin and his wonderful lamp and of the genii who turned everything into glittering gold, and commonplace surroundings into palaces of delight.

The story I have to tell you is more wonderful than any tale of fairy or genie. It tells how an almost limitless wilderness was turned into a great and prosperous State—not in a moment's time, by the waving of a wand—but by the patient toil of thousands of brave and sturdy men and women, in a period of less than one hundred years. They were the genii who swept away the forests, made the farms, built the cities and established civilization.

The merit of this story lies in the truth of its magic, and in this it is superior to any fairy tale. There are those yet living who have witnessed much of this wonderful transformation, and it seems a fitting time, at the close of this Nineteenth Century; that the young people of Indiana should be told that all the growth, all the progress and improvement in Indiana has been made since 1800. Indeed, Indiana is one of the miracles of the closing century.

In giving this little book to you it is my sincere desire that you may derive half the pleasure in reading that I did in writing it. This is scarcely to be expected, however, for the entire year which I devoted to its preparation was a constant delight—the very happiest of my life, so in point of time, at least, I have the advantage of my readers.

If, like the heroes and heroines of the old fairy tales, I should be granted three wishes concerning this book—shall I tell you what they would be?

1st. I would create in the minds and hearts of the boys and girls of Indiana a genuine love and pride for our State; a desire to know more about her and a determination to be worthy to be called her citizens.

2d. I would teach them that in the Union of States there is none better than our own; that nowhere does the sun shine brighter, do the birds sing sweeter, nor are the flowers more fra-

grant than in Indiana; that her cities are as beautiful, her fields as fertile, her institutions as great, her people as talented as any to be found on the continent.

3d. I would teach them to love and respect the memory of the men and women, who, by toil and through hardships made Indiana what she is to-day. They were not all cultured men and women, perhaps, and some of them were uneducated, but they were brave and true, and we are indebted to them for all the advantages we enjoy.

There has long been a tendency to depreciate our own State. We have not been a boastful commonwealth; we have not exalted our own. But the time has come when the word "Hoosier" is no longer a term of ridicule, but one in which we may take pride. The time *will come* when like Rome of old, we may say, "Why, to be a 'Hoosier' is greater than a king."

I cannot close without acknowledging my obligation to those friends who gave me timely aid in the preparation of this book. Some of them must be nameless, but I am none the less grateful to them. Among the books that have been helpful to me I would mention J. B. Dillon's "History of Indiana"; W. H. English's "Conquest of the Northwestern Territory"; W. W. Woollen's "Biographical Sketches of Early Indiana"; J. P. Dunn's "Indiana a Redemption from Slavery"; W. H. Smith's "History of Indiana," and W. W. Thornton's "Government of the State of Indiana."

I am under a deep sense of gratitude to the Hon. William Wesley Woollen, President of Indiana Historical Society, for his great kindness and helpful advice in my work. I send this little book to meet its fate with greater courage and confidence because he has said "It is well."

W. W. C.

Westfield, Ind., Aug. 26, 1899.

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THE YOUNG PEOPLE'S HISTORY OF INDIANA.

CHAPTER I.

Pre-Historic Indiana—The Mound Builders—American Indians.

If you look on the map of the United States you will see that about one-fourth of the distance across the continent from east to west, and near the center from north to south, lies that part of the country known by the pleasing name of Indiana.

To the north lies the State of Michigan, and the north-western corner is laved by a lake of the same name, on whose broad waters float great ships of commerce. On the east borders the State of Ohio, and on the west stretch the broad prairies of Illinois. The Ohio River winds its crooked way through the hills on the south, and by its meanderings forms the irregular outline of the southern part of the State. Across this noted stream rise the beautiful hills of Kentucky, sometimes called the "Gateway to the South," and on its waters are to be seen the river steamers and other boats which ply between Pittsburg and New Orleans.

The distance across Indiana from east to west is about one hundred and fifty miles, and the extreme length is two hundred and seventy-six miles. Within these boundaries lie thirty-five thousand nine hundred and ten square miles* of land as rich and productive as can be found in America.

*McNally, 1895.

Now, let us look at the map of Indiana, and see what we can learn from it. The first thing which attracts our attention, is the numerous crooked lines which wind about over its surface. These are the rivers and creeks which drain the country, and help to make it fertile by carrying off the waste water, which, if allowed to remain on the land, or to sink into the ground, would render it unhealthful and unfit for cultivation.

The largest of these streams is the Wabash River, which enters the State from the east, and after flowing in a northwesterly direction for some distance, changes its course and flows in a southwesterly direction across the State, forming a part of the boundary on the west, between Indiana and Illinois, and empties into the Ohio River in the extreme southwestern corner of Indiana.

In the northeastern part of Indiana, two other rivers, the St. Joseph and St. Mary, unite and form the Maumee River, which flows in a direction exactly opposite to the Wabash, and finds its way to Lake Erie in the northeast. It seems curious that these two streams so near each other, should flow in exactly opposite directions. The reason of this is that the land between these streams is very high; in fact, it is one of the highest points in the State, and the water which falls in this locality divides itself, a part of it flowing into the Maumee, on the northeast, the remainder flowing into the streams which empty into the Wabash, on the southwest, just as the water which falls upon the roof of a house divides and flows down to the eaves on both sides. This high point of land is called a water-shed, and here Fort Wayne, which is sometimes appropriately called the "Summit City," is located.

The next largest streams of water in Indiana, are the two forks of White River, which rise in the eastern part of the State, and flow toward the southwest until they near the Wabash, where they unite, and continuing their course, empty into that river about twenty miles below the city of Vincennes; here they all unite and journey together until they reach the Ohio River.

In the northwest the Kankakee River seeks an outlet through the Illinois River to the Mississippi. There are many other smaller streams in the State, and they nearly all find their way to the Wabash, and finally reach the Gulf of Mexico through the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers.

Examine the map yet more closely and you will see many, many little dots scattered over the surface; there are hundreds of them, and they represent cities, towns and villages. Look closely and you will see that they are almost all connected with each other, directly, or indirectly, by finely drawn lines. These are railroads, and there are so many of them that they form a network of iron over the State. (Indiana has 8,487 miles of railroads.) Look again, and you will see that many of these lines come together and unite at one point near the center of the State, and at this point there is a larger dot, or star; that represents Indianapolis, the capital of Indiana. Here lives the Governor, and here the laws are made which govern the people of the State. It is a great city, and there are other large and important cities in Indiana of which we will speak later. The entire State is enriched by them and their industries.

Between these cities, towns and villages lies a vast agricultural district. No State can boast of finer farms, or richer land than ours. As far as the eye can reach stretch

meadows, orchards and fields of grain, with cool, shady woodlands here and there, which add beauty to the landscape. Comfortable and prosperous homes are seen on every side. Cottages and mansions are scattered here and there, and everywhere are seen evidences of thrift and prosperity. Every neighborhood has a school-house, and churches lift aloft their pointed spires and seem to direct us to a life beyond the skies. These homes are connected with each other and with the schools, churches, villages and cities, by roads called public highways. By means of them the people can communicate with each other, and can know what is taking place in the big world outside their own community.

But it was not always so. There was a time, many years ago, when this broad, prosperous land was but a wilderness; a deep, dark, almost impenetrable forest, whose occupants were wild beasts, feathered songsters, slimy reptiles and tribes of wild men. There were no homes, no schools, no churches, but from the shores of the Ohio River to the Northern Lakes, and on, on, there were vast forests, unknown to the white man's tread. The restless streams which drain our beautiful country, wound their way through forest glades and only knew the dip of the Indian canoe,—those shady isles, but the stealthy tread of wild beasts and wild men.

For how many ages those deep forests had been undisturbed save by the red men, no one can tell; neither is it known whence the Indians came; but however long may have been the time that the North American Indians possessed this country, it is certain that before their coming, the territory of Indiana was inhabited by another people,

between whom and the Indians no one has been able to establish a connecting link. For want of a better name, these people are spoken of as the "Mound Builders." This name is given them on account of the large number of mounds of earth and stone which they have left to tell us of their existence. These mounds are found in different parts of the State, especially in the eastern and southern portions.

Nothing is known of the Mound Builders except what has been learned from the objects taken from the mounds, which men have opened and examined. The articles usually found are fragments of pottery and implements of stone. Skeletons have also been found buried beneath these great heaps of earth and stone, which doubtless have lain there for hundreds of years, and it seems strange when we remember that they were one time living beings, like ourselves.

From the location of these mounds, which sometimes take one form, sometimes another, it is supposed that the Mound Builders were an agricultural people, and cultivated the ground about their homes, for the country around these mounds is well adapted to farming—fertile, well drained and usually situated near some water-course. The size of the mounds, which are sometimes but a few feet high, and sometimes many feet above the level of the ground, proves that the country was at one time thickly inhabited by these unknown people, for with their means of digging and hauling earth and stones, many workmen must have been employed a great many months in their erection.

When the country now called Indiana was first discovered by Europeans, it was claimed and possessed by a num-

ber of Indian tribes called the Miami Confederacy. The greatest among these tribes were the Miami Indians, who, in former times, were called Twightwees. The Miamis were very powerful and influential among the other Indian tribes. They were greatly feared by their enemies and much sought after by tribes needing assistance.

When people organize for the purpose of government, there must be some method of grouping them. With the white race, this is done according to territory; that is, a man or a woman belongs to a certain State, or county, or township; but the Indians divided themselves into tribes according to kinship, and were governed by a chief, or a number of chiefs. Sometimes several tribes would unite and form a confederacy for the purpose of protecting themselves against other unfriendly tribes. So it was with the tribes which occupied Indiana. The territory claimed by this confederacy covered the entire States of Indiana, Michigan and Illinois, and a portion of Ohio.

We have no means of knowing when the Miami Indians came to this country, nor whence they came. The Indians had no written language, and no record of events except the "Indian legends," the truth of which we have no means of proving, but "Little Turtle," a distinguished Miami chief, said that his fathers had occupied the country from "time immemorial."

When first known, these tribes lived in small villages built at different places within the territory, principally near the Wabash River and its tributaries. Their dwellings were rude huts made of small logs, or wigwams made of poles stuck in the ground and tied together with pliant strips of bark, and covered with the skins of animals, large pieces

of bark, or a kind of mat made of flags which grew in swampy places. Some of these lodges, or wigwams, were portable and were moved from place to place when the Indians scattered during the hunting season. In summer they hunted and fished, or made war upon other tribes. In winter they gathered in villages and passed the time in games and play.

The men made weapons of war which, before the coming of the whites, consisted of a spear or javelin, a bow and arrows, pointed with barbed stone, a tomahawk, or stone hatchet fastened to a handle by withes, and a war club made by enclosing a stone in rawhide, with a handle made of the same material twisted and hardened. Their canoes were made of logs burned out and made smooth with sharp shells, or of birch bark which the women sewed together with long, strong threads which they peeled from the roots of trees. The women dressed the game which the hunters brought home, cooked the food and carried the burdens when they moved from place to place.

Around their permanent villages, patches of ground were cleared, and on these the women raised corn, beans, squashes, pumpkins, melons, tobacco and a kind of wild cucumber. They had no tools such as farmers use, but dug up the ground with the sharp bones of animals, tortoise shells, or flat stones. Later, they exchanged furs with the whites for iron hoes. The Indians were not very thoughtful for their future wants, and would feast one day and go hungry the next.

Their clothing was made of the skins of animals, sometimes rudely embroidered with beads made of shells. They were very fond of decorations and adorned themselves with

the claws and teeth of animals and the beaks and feathers of birds, quite like the civilized people of to-day. The men wore but little clothing and tatoored the exposed parts of the body, while the women were usually well clothed. Both men and women went bareheaded, wore their hair long and painted their faces. They wore moccasins on their feet, and made necklaces, bracelets and belts of shells, which they wore around their necks, arms and ankles, and some tribes wore large rings in their ears and noses. In their councils they used belts made of beads, called wampum, as pledges with each other, and carefully preserved them as we do written records. The beads of the wampum belts were made of shells found on the seashore, and sawed into an oblong form, about a quarter of an inch long, and made round like other beads. They were strung on leather strings and several strands sewed together with fine sinewy thread. The shells were usually of two colors, violet and white. The violet were more highly prized by the Indians, who valued them as we do gold, silver and precious stones. Wampum belts were often worked in figures, expressing the meaning they were intended to preserve. Thus, at a treaty of peace the principal belt often bore the figures of an Indian and a white man holding a chain between them.

The Indians were very fond of games, especially those of chance. The little Indian boys amused themselves by flying kites, playing at ball and bat, marbles, and many other games that white boys like to play—such as hide and seek, leaping, climbing, and shooting with bows and arrows. The little girls had their dolls, and doubtless made clothes for them out of the skins of little animals, and played at house-keeping in queer little bark wigwams, and, in fact, were

much like other children who imitate the lives and occupations of those about them.

The Indian mothers had a very strange way of taking care of their babies, or papposes, as they called them. When very young they were bound fast to a board to make them grow straight. When the mother went on a journey, or wished to move them from place to place, she carried them strapped to her back. When at her journey's end, or when she wished to rest or sleep, she stood the board against some object, or fastened it to the boughs of a tree, where the little one was rocked to sleep by the swaying boughs and slept as cosily as any little white child in its snowy crib at its mother's side.

The Indians expressed their anger, their joys and their sorrows in wild dances. They practiced a great variety of them, all of which had some particular meaning. They had the corn-planting dance, by which they hoped to secure the favor of the "Great Spirit" that their crops might be bountiful; the beggar dance; the dance after the death of one of their tribe; the dance of the medicine man, after he had cured disease, and many others. But the greatest of all their dances, and the one that best satisfied their savage natures, was the war dance.

They were kind and hospitable to their friends, but very cruel to their enemies. When a prisoner was taken in war, he was certain to be put to death with the most horrible tortures, by slow fire, the ceremony of living cremation often lasting an entire day before the unfortunate victim was allowed to end his sufferings in death. Neither old nor young, men nor women, were spared these cruel tortures, unless some one of the tribe who had lost a member of his

family, chose to adopt the captive to take his place. One of the principal burning places in Indiana was on the north bank of the Maumee River, where the St. Joseph and the St. Mary Rivers unite.

Near all the Indian villages were cemeteries, where the dead were buried, for only the living were burned. With the dead warrior were usually placed his weapons, his ornaments and a dish, or jar, containing food, for the Indians believed that the spirit of the dead needed food as it journeyed to the "happy hunting-ground," which was their heaven. The Indians had a strange and wild religion. They believed in a "Great Spirit" who ruled the world. They believed in a future existence, a life after death, a transfer to a happier state, or condition, where they would have the same desires, and enjoy the same pleasures, in a country abounding in game, where they could hunt and fish to their heart's content. They also believed in a "Bad Spirit," but had no fear of its troubling them after death.

It is difficult to believe that the habit of eating human flesh was ever common in Indiana; yet it is true that these Indian tribes were almost all of them at one time cannibals, and those slain in battle, as well as captives, were made objects of the feast, and in times of famine it was the custom to kill and eat their kindred. The Miami Indians continued this practice longer than any other tribe—indeed, until after the Revolutionary war. It became a religious ceremony with them, and was finally confined to one family. It was a strange, terrible religion—very unlike that our Saviour taught—which demanded the eating of human flesh, and sometimes that of kindred. The early missionaries were often obliged to witness these sickening scenes and were powerless to prevent it.

And so, these wild people continued to live for no one knows how many ages, wandering through the forests and prairies, floating down the streams in their log or bark canoes, worshiping in their savage way, killing wild animals and fighting each other, until the nations from over the sea found them, and wanted their land, their game and their furs, and then a change came into their lives. From this time they were never again to roam their native forests without fear of molestation.

CHAPTER II.

Early Explorations—Missionaries—The French take possession of the Country.

From the time Columbus discovered America in 1492, more than one hundred and fifty years passed away before any part of Indiana was explored by Europeans; and all that time the savages roamed through the forests, fished in the streams, hunted wild animals and fought each other. But this was not to last always. Three great nations from over the sea—Spain, France and England—heard of this wonderful country which Columbus had discovered, and determined to possess at least a portion of it.

They had been told that the soil was rich and productive; that the forests were full of wild game and the streams full of fish. They also believed that gold and silver, perhaps precious stones, could be found here, and they sent men in ships across the ocean to explore and take possession of the country, to form settlements, or colonies, in order to hold

the land and keep out other nations, to barter with the Indians and to search for gold.

Spain sailed across the seas and succeeded in planting a colony in Florida. The first permanent English settlement was at Jamestown, Virginia. France went farther north and established small colonies at Port Royal, Nova Scotia, and at Quebec, Canada. But they were not satisfied to stay in these places. They knew that the great country west was full of wild animals with rich and valuable furs, and they sent out men to trade for them. They brought articles of various kinds, which they traded to the Indians for the furs and skins of animals; these they carried back to their own country and sold.

They studied the tastes of the wild men, and filled their ships with the things that pleased them, such as blankets, bright colored cloth, traps, kettles, hoes, coarse cotton, ribbons, beads and other trinkets which delighted the savages. But they did a very bad thing; they sold them intoxicating drinks, of which the Indians knew nothing until the white men came, and they traded them knives, hatchets, guns, powder and other weapons, which the Indians afterward used to fight against the white people when they became angry with them, or drunk on the whiskey which they sold them, and their savage natures demanded the spilling of blood, or when they became alarmed lest the white men should take from them all their game and furs and rob them of the country which they had so long regarded as their own.

Some of the white traders established trading-posts; that is, they built strong houses of logs, in which they kept the articles they wished to sell to the Indians. To these places

the savages brought their furs and traded them for the things they wanted. When the traders had collected a large amount of furs and peltries, as the skins of animals were called, they loaded them into canoes and paddled down the streams until they reached larger streams, or rivers; then they transferred them to larger boats and took them to the towns on the sea coast and sold them to merchants, who shipped them to foreign countries.

Some of the traders were too poor to build trading-posts, so they carried their merchandise in packs strapped to their shoulders, or with the strap resting against the forehead. In this way they traveled through the forests on foot, or floated down the streams in canoes, going from one Indian village to another, trading their goods for furs, which they carried back to the settlements and sold, buying other goods and trading them in the same manner. Doubtless the Indian villages in Indiana, on the banks of the Wabash and other streams, were visited by this class of traders long before any settlements were formed. What a strange life these traders lived, traveling from village to village, sleeping under the open sky at night, exposed to all kinds of danger from wild beasts and wild men.

The first traders who came to Indiana were the French, who had settled in Canada, at Quebec and Montreal, and who, following the rivers and lakes in the north, opened up trade with the Indians through this country. There was a class of men who were called "voyageurs," or "wood-men," who, during these early times, did great service to the fur-traders. The "voyageurs" were originally young men from Canada, who, disliking the restraints of civilization, broke away from their families and took to the woods, liv-

ing among the Indians and adopting their dress and many of their customs. These "coureurs de bois" [kou-reur-de-bois], as the French called them, lived wild, reckless, lawless lives, spending the time hunting, fishing and trapping, trading with the Indians, gliding through the sluggish streams in their long, narrow canoes, sleeping at night in some Indian wigwam or beneath the open sky, and living upon the rough food of the forest. They endured all these hardships and preferred them to the tamer occupations of the settlers. It was indeed a strange, unenviable life that those half savage men lived; however, they were of great use to the early traders, who employed them as guides through the forests and pilots on the rivers. The name "voyageur" was afterward applied to all men who lived in the forest and did not claim some French village as their home.

As the country became better known, other traders came, and soon France and England began to quarrel about the territory and commerce in North America. Each nation secured as much land and trade as possible and tried to drive the other nations out of the country.

About the year 1650 the English, who lived in colonies along the Atlantic coast, attempted to plant a settlement west of the Alleghany mountains and to open trade with the Indians. As early as 1670 the French settlements in Canada had extended along the shores of the St. Lawrence River, and the northern boundaries of Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, and had sent traders to explore the country bordering on the great Northern Lakes, as far west as Lake Superior, and built trading-posts and small forts and stockades at several places, for the purpose of protecting the fur trade, and had sent missionaries among many tribes of Indians.

In 1668 Father Fermin, a French priest, established a mission among the Seneca Indians, and was probably the first missionary who visited Indiana and Illinois. The French were a Catholic people, and two of their missionaries, Claude Allouez [Al-loo-a] and Claude Dablon, were the first white men known to have visited Indiana, yet doubtless the traders and woodmen were here before them. Between the years 1670 and 1672 these French priests explored the eastern part of Wisconsin, the northeastern portion of Illinois, and that part of Indiana which lies north of the Kankakee River, and tried to establish missions among the Indians.

The missionaries were pious men, who, in the early times, left their homes and a civilized country and went among the savages, trying to persuade them to abandon their wild religion and follow that of our Saviour. They gathered these savage people together in their smoky wigwams, or in cabins they had built for the purpose, and prayed and sang with them and tried to teach them the lessons Christ taught when He was upon earth. But it was very difficult to make the Indians understand the teachings of Christianity. They were satisfied with their own religion and did not care to change their wild ways; and, though the missionaries labored hard, and endured many privations and dangers, and though they succeeded in making better men of a few of the Indians, their efforts were but poorly rewarded. Still, they did not despair of doing good, and it will be seen that in after years one of them was of great service to the country, and that one act of his had important effect upon the history of Indiana.

The missionaries had great difficulty in traveling through

the country. Sometimes for many days they would not see a single person; sometimes they had to cross wide prairies which were like great oceans whose shores could not be seen, with no path to guide them, and many streams to cross, over which there were no bridges; sometimes they floated down rivers in small boats, and often came to rapids, and waterfalls, and rocky places, and were obliged to go ashore and carry their canoe and luggage around them to keep from being dashed to pieces. Sometimes they traveled for days through dense forests full of wild beasts and poisonous serpents, and had to open a passage through brush and thick undergrowth of briars and thorns. Sometimes they waded through deep marshes, in which they sank to their knees, and at night they had but the ground for a bed, softened, perhaps, by leaves of trees which they scraped together. They were constantly exposed to wind and rain and all kinds of weather, and sometimes they were taken prisoners by the Indians, and in some cases they were put to death in a horrible manner. So, taken altogether, the missionaries had a very hard time of it.

While the missionaries were trying to teach the savages, and the traders were buying their furs and trading them merchandise, a fearless and enterprising young Frenchman named Robert Cavalier de La Salle, [Kav-le-a deh La Sal] who had been in command of a French fort in Canada, having listened to stories the missionaries and traders told of the Mississippi River, and of the rich country through which it flowed, concluded that it must fall into the Pacific Ocean and open a way to China and Japan. So he determined to explore the country, trade with the Indians and find the mouth of this great river. La Salle was well fitted for this.

He was a brave man, not afraid of the hardships he knew he must undergo in a country whose inhabitants were wild men and beasts. He was well educated, and, what was of great importance, he knew several Indian languages; for you must know that the Indians did not all speak the same tongue, but many tribes had languages of their own.

So, one July day, in the year 1669, La Salle, with a company of about thirty men, sailors, pilots, carpenters and other mechanics, started on his perilous undertaking to find the mouth of the Mississippi River. They loaded their boats with such things as they needed and sailed out through the St. Lawrence River into Lake Ontario, until they reached its western shore. Here they left the lake to explore the country lying south of it. Following the streams, or water courses, which were the highways of the explorers, they at last reached the Ohio River, which La Salle believed to be the Mississippi. They followed this river for a long distance, and in the voyage traced it in its windings along the southern boundaries of Indiana. But the hardships of the journey proved too much for the courage of his men, and they all deserted, leaving their brave leader alone in the wilderness. After this, he was obliged to return, traveling the entire distance alone and living on such food as the Indians gave him, or as he could find in the forest.

This misfortune did not discourage La Salle, and it is said that the following year he made another attempt to reach the Mississippi River. This time he passed through the northern lakes to the southern shores of Lake Michigan, and explored the country south as far as the Kankakee River in northwestern Indiana, and through this channel reached the Illinois River.

La Salle continued to explore the country and trade with the Indians, who informed him that he could reach the Mississippi by way of the Maumee and Wabash Rivers, but the unfriendly Iroquois Indians, who were at war with the Miamis, would not allow the traders to use this route very long. He met with many misfortunes, and had much to discourage him, but he held fast to his purpose, and in the year 1680 he reached the point where Peoria, Illinois, is now situated. Here he built a fort, which he named "Creve Cœur," which in English means "Broken Heart." He must have been greatly discouraged, indeed, to have given so gloomy a name to his fort.

Two years after this La Salle again started with a small exploring party to find a passage to the Pacific Ocean. This time he reached the Mississippi through the Illinois River, and continuing his journey down that stream, on an April day in the year 1682 he reached the Gulf of Mexico. He was the first European to discover the mouth of the Mississippi, although the river itself had been known for many years.

What must have been the thoughts of this brave young adventurer, who, after years of hardships and dangers, at last stood upon the shore he had so long been seeking, and looked for the first time upon that great, restless body of water! Did he believe he had indeed found the passage to the old world for which he had so long been searching? Or did he realize that he had discovered a new ocean, and look across its bright waters and wonder what was in the world beyond its shores?

Whatever his thoughts may have been, he did not forget his own country nor his loyalty to his king. He built a few

log huts on the bank of the river, erected a cross, fastened the arms of France to a tree, conducted some religious ceremony, and on April 9, 1682, proclaimed that he had taken possession of the country in the name of Louis XIV, king of France. King Louis was greatly pleased with La Salle's conduct, and that of other explorers, and at once set up a claim to the country.

The territory which the French claimed, and which they called Louisiana, in honor of their king, included all the land lying between New Mexico and Canada, and extended in all directions as far as the sources of the rivers which flow into the Mississippi. This included both the Ohio and Mississippi Valleys.

Thus, you will see that Indiana was first claimed by the French, and that Louis XIV was the first ruler over it. We will find that other nations soon claimed and possessed the country, and that it passed through many changes before it became a State.

At this time the Spaniards claimed the Peninsula of Florida and all that country lying east and north of New Mexico, as far as the Missouri and Mississippi Rivers. This they claimed by right of the discoveries made by Ponce de Léon [Pon-tha da La-on] and Hernando de Soto, between the years 1538 and 1552. France, however, paid no attention to the claims of Spain, and proceeded to erect a line of forts and trading-posts and to establish colonies from the Gulf of Mexico to Lake Michigan.

It would be interesting to follow La Salle in all his travels through this wild, unbroken wilderness, for he spent twenty years of his life in exploring the country, trading with the Indians, building forts and trading-posts, and encouraging

the establishment of settlements; and by his knowledge of the country, its forests and prairies, its lakes and rivers, and by the maps he made of the country he explored, he was able to be of great service to those who came after him. He suffered many hardships, privations and dangers, but through all was brave and manly, and it interests us to remember that he traced the entire southern boundary of Indiana, explored the northwestern corner of the State, and made frequent visits to the Indians in Indiana, and at one time persuaded them to join a colony he had established on the Illinois River, which he called Post St. Louis, and which was situated about six miles below the town of Ottawa, Illinois. La Salle was treacherously murdered by two of his followers in 1687, but his settlement on the Illinois long survived him.

There were other French explorers who also deserve mention. Among them are M. Joliet [Zho-le-a], an agent of the French colonial government, and James Marquette [Mar-ket], a missionary. These men explored the country through Michigan and Wisconsin as far west as the Mississippi River, and rendered valuable service by their discoveries.

After these early visits of La Salle, we have no knowledge of Indiana having been explored for several years, yet doubtless the traders continued to travel through the country, for it is not probable that they would abandon a territory so rich in valuable furs.

CHAPTER III.

French Forts in Indiana—The Territory passes into the hands of the British.

When the French people heard the wonderful stories told about the country which their king claimed in America; that it was rich in valuable furs, and that gold, silver and precious stones were to be found there in great quantities, many of them were eager to leave their homes in France to try their fortunes in the new world.

So, ships loaded with emigrants were sent across the ocean, and soon a number of colonies, or settlements, were established in Louisiana, as the country was still called. The most important of these was New Orleans, above the mouth of the Mississippi River.

The king caused forts to be built for the protection of these settlements and sent officers to take charge of them, to keep peace with the Indians and to enforce the laws, which were made in Paris, for the government of the colonists. The principal French settlements in America at this time were in Canada, and the seat of the general government was at Quebec, on the St. Lawrence River.

It was the purpose of the French king, after he had taken possession of the country, to establish a line of forts and settlements from Canada to New Orleans, along the route of the Maumee and Wabash Rivers, for the purpose of protecting the fur trade and keeping out other nations.

If you will again look on the map of the United States you will see that boats can sail from Quebec up the St. Law-

rence River, across Lake Ontario, through the Niagara River to Lake Erie, across Lake Erie to the mouth of the Maumee, up that stream to the Wabash, down the Wabash to the Ohio River, thence to the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico. It is a wonderful thoroughfare, and was of untold value to the traders and settlers before the time of railroads.

It is true there were many obstacles in the way of the passage of boats. There were rocks and rapids, great waterfalls and whirlpools, and there was the portage, or land which separates the Maumee and the Wabash Rivers; but these difficulties were overcome, and the Indians and traders used these waterways for transporting their goods and furs for many years. This line of travel also gave the French two ways of communicating with the mother country, one by way of the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic Ocean, the other by way of the Mississippi River and the Gulf of Mexico.

One of the first in the chain of forts which the French king proposed to establish was erected on the Detroit River, near the city of Detroit, Michigan, in the year 1701. During the next few years a number of other forts were erected, three of them within the limits of Indiana. One of these was built at the headwaters of the Maumee River, where the city of Fort Wayne now stands, and was called Fort Miamis; one on the banks of the Wabash River, four miles southwest of the city of La Fayette; this was called Fort Ouiatanon [We-aw-ta-non]; and another, erected on the Wabash where the city of Vincennes now stands. This fort was called by different names by the people who afterward possessed it, but the name given it by the French was "Poste

du Aubache." It finally came to be known by the name of Post Vincennes, in honor of its first commander, Frances Morgan de Vincennes.

The exact time when these posts, or forts, were erected is not certainly known, but they were probably built not far from the same time. The most reliable date fixed for the establishment of Fort Ouiatanon is 1720; that of Post Vincennes, 1727, while Fort Miamis, which is probably the oldest fort in Indiana, was erected between the years 1713 and 1718.

Fort Ouiatanon was a trading-post of much importance. It stood about seventy yards from the bank of the river, and consisted of perhaps a dozen cabins, surrounded by a stockade, built of large posts, pointed at the top, planted close together in a line, for a barrier. On account of the rapids just below the city of La Fayette, the large boats could go no further up the stream, and all merchandise had to be brought in small boats above the rapids to Fort Ouiatanon, where they were placed in large canoes, or in pirogues—which were canoes made from the trunks of trees—and taken down the river.

Fort Vincennes was also a post of importance, and many important events in the early history of Indiana took place there. It is probable that a temporary trading-post was established at this point before the fort was erected, perhaps as early as 1710 or 1711, and in 1726 the missionary Murin was in charge of a French Catholic mission here.

Fort Miamis occupied a very important position, and not only commanded the entrance to the Maumee River, but was situated near the capital of the Miami Confederacy of Indiana, which was called Ke-ki-onga. Here their great

councils were held, their feasts and important ceremonies celebrated, and here their illustrious dead were buried. Here, also, in the early days, came the priests to tell these simple children of the forest of the sweet Child Christ and the story of the Cross. It is said that La Salle at one time visited Ke-ki-onga. It is certainly known that this was on the ancient Indian route between Lake Erie and the Ohio River, and that the Indians made it known to the white traders.

Although the entire country from Canada to the Gulf of Mexico was claimed and possessed by the French, with the capital at Paris, the territory was divided into two provinces—that of Canada and Louisiana. The dividing line on the Wabash River was at the point where the city of Terre Haute stands, which the English afterward called the “Highlands of the Wabash.” By this division, Post Ouia-tanon belonged to the province of Canada and was under military control of Detroit, while Post Vincennes belonged to Louisiana, with the capital at New Orleans.

In the year 1721 Louisiana was divided into nine districts, which were named New Orleans, Biboxi, Mobile, Natchez, Alabama, Yazoo, Arkansas, Natchitoché [Nak-etosh] and Illinois. Indiana belonged to the district of Illinois. The capital, or seat of the military government, for the district of Illinois was at Fort Chartres, on the Mississippi River. This was the first capital of Indiana, although it was many years before the name “Indiana” was given to our State. So, with the French capital at Paris, the capital of Louisiana at New Orleans, and the capital of the district of Illinois at Fort Chartres, the affairs of government in Indiana were very much mixed, and must have puzzled the

inhabitants, if they took the trouble to think about them at all.

King Louis XIV died in 1715, and Louis XV became king of France and ruler over the French territory in America. But this king and his nobles cared more for making fortunes for themselves out of the colonies they planted in Louisiana than they did for the welfare of the colonists, and instead of making wise laws for their protection and government, they taxed them all they could pay, and placed the commerce of the country in the hands of a company that made them buy everything they used from the company's stores at very high prices, and paid them very low prices for their produce. This was very discouraging to the poor people who had come to this new country to make homes and earn a living for themselves and families.

The French king did another foolish thing; he gave large tracts of land to favored persons, and bestowed upon them such titles as the "counts" and "marquisses of the Mississippi." It seems absurd that many persons should seek these titles, and think themselves very aristocratic, indeed, because of them. Many of these titled land-holders never saw their possessions in America, but sent out ships filled with officers, who were to look after their estates and send the profits to the owners in France. But the officers they sent were not the kind of men needed in a new country. They refused to till the ground, or raise produce even for their own use, and spent the time searching for gold, silver and precious stones. They came to America to make their fortunes, and failing to do this, they became vagabonds and lived off the labor of those who were willing to work. As a consequence, the French settlements in America did not become very strong.

But what had England been doing all this time? I assure you she had by no means been idle, but had planted colonies up and down the coast of the Atlantic Ocean, reaching westward as far as the Alleghany Mountains, and claimed the right to extend her territory as far west as she chose, and had already attempted to establish a settlement on the western side of the Alleghanies. This greatly displeased the French, who claimed the entire Ohio and Mississippi Valleys, and they determined to resist all attempts of the English to enter their country. The British, however, gained a foothold in this territory, in 1748, by making friends with the Miami Indians on the Wabash River, and securing their consent to enter the territory, and to trade and form settlements. As a result, Indiana was claimed by both France and England.

About this time the British formed a company, which they called the "Ohio Company," for the purpose of planting English settlements west of the Alleghany Mountains, and to aid them in this, George II, king of England, granted or deeded the company a half million acres of land, lying on or near the Ohio River, and gave them the exclusive privilege of trading with the Indians. Soon after this, a number of English traders crossed the mountains and began to trade with some Indian tribes. This made the French very angry. They claimed that the English had no right to trade on their land, and the Governor General of Canada, who was the highest French officer in America, sent a company of men, under Captain Louis Celeron, to explore the country between Detroit and the Alleghany Mountains.

This they did, and they took possession of the country in the name of Louis XV, king of France, just as La Salle had

done when he discovered the mouth of the Mississippi River, and they buried inscribed plates of lead at the mouth of the principal rivers, along the streams and in other important places, to show that they possessed the country.

Not long afterward, the Governor of Pennsylvania received warning from Captain Celeron that the English were exposing themselves to danger by trespassing upon territory belonging to the French. He also received notice that persons found guilty of further trespass upon "French soil" would be liable to arrest. The English paid no attention to these threats, however, and continued to trade with the Indians as before.

At this time the population of the English in America was much greater than that of the French, there being one million fifty-one thousand English, and only fifty-two thousand French. One reason for this was that many of the French who came to America were adventurers, who spent the time searching for gold, and did not attempt to make homes for themselves and their families. They lived wandering, restless lives, and formed but few permanent settlements. The English pursued a different course. They encouraged emigrants to bring their families to America, and to establish large colonies, build comfortable houses, till the land and engage in other trades and industries. The result was that the English increased in strength and numbers, while the French force weakened. Notwithstanding this great inequality in strength and numbers, the French were ready to resist the English in their attempt to settle or trade on what they considered French territory.

While the French and English were quarreling about the land and commerce of the territory, and each was trying to

get possession of as much land and trade as possible, three small colonies of French people gathered about the forts in Indiana. Frances Morgan de Vincennes, who had been appointed commander of Post Vincennes, with authority to rule over the colony, was killed in an expedition against the Natchez Indians, in 1736. He was a good man and had wisely governed the little colony. He died exhorting his men to be worthy of their religion and of their country.

After his death, Louis St. Ange was placed in command at Post Vincennes. He, too, was a wise and good man, and continued to command the fort as long as the French held possession of the country. St. Ange led a quiet, peaceful life at the little fort on the banks of the Wabash, with the Indians and a few French families for his neighbors. He was a wise and discreet officer and ruler, and was much loved by the people. He was kind and generous and managed the affairs of the little colony in such a way as to gain the approval of his superior officers, as well as the love of those over whom he ruled.

And so the years passed peacefully away. The French settlers lived careless, happy lives, farming a little, fishing, hunting and trading, living at peace with the Indians and adopting many of their customs. They had but few wants, and they were easily satisfied. They were free from taxes and cared but little about the things which were taking place in the world outside of their own little community, shut in by the gloomy forests, deep streams and spreading prairies. But a change was coming to disturb their quiet lives, and fears were soon to take the place of all this peaceful security.

The quarrel between the French and the English contin-

ued to grow. The English insisted upon forming settlements and hunting and trading where they chose. The French were more and more determined that they should not trespass upon land which they claimed as theirs, and they built forts in many places northwest of the Ohio River to keep the English out of the country, and garrisoned them with French soldiers, and by the aid of the Indians, who were friendly to them, they captured several English traders on the borders of the Ohio, and took from them their furs and other goods, and captured a block-house and trading-post, which an agent of the Ohio Company had built at Loggstown, on the Ohio River. This made the Miami Indians, who were friendly to the English, very angry, and they captured three French traders and sent them prisoners to the English, in Pennsylvania.

The British adopted the plan proposed by Dr. Benjamin Franklin, to capture all the forts which the French had erected, and either destroy them or garrison them with British soldiers. So, in the month of May, 1754, Governor Dinwiddie, of Virginia, instructed Major George Washington, with a company of about two hundred men, to march against a fort which the French were building at the place where the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers unite to form the Ohio, where now the city of Pittsburg stands.

No doubt these brave Virginia soldiers and their gallant leader felt very proud and hopeful as they marched away in their bright uniforms, to the sound of the fife and drum, with the colors of King George waving in the breeze. As they neared the fort, however, a company of French soldiers came to meet them and ordered Major Washington to withdraw his forces from French territory. He refused to do

this, and the Virginians were attacked by the French and compelled to retreat, much to their chagrin.

When the English authorities heard of the defeat of Washington and the Virginia troops, and that the French still held possession of Fort Du Quesne [Du Ken], as it was called, they at once determined to engage in war against the French, and directed the English colonists to take up arms against them.

Thus began the war between France and England concerning their possessions in America, which is known as the "French and Indian war," and which lasted almost eight years, and was finally ended by a treaty made at Paris between the two nations, February 10, 1763. By this treaty France ceded to Great Britain not only Canada and Nova Scotia, but all the territory claimed by the French lying east of the Mississippi River, except the town of New Orleans and the island on which it stands. The navigation of the Mississippi River was opened free, from its source to the Gulf of Mexico. Thus the territory of Indiana passed from the hands of the French to that of the British; but the Indians, who were hostile to the English, did not allow them to take possession of the country for more than a year. At this time there were only about one hundred French families in what is now Indiana. About eighty of these lived at Vincennes. Fourteen families were at Fort Ouitanon, and nine or ten at Fort Wayne. These three small colonies were the only white settlements within the present State of Indiana.

The Indians took part in all the conflicts between the French and English in their efforts to hold possession of the country. They were divided in their opinions and likings,

some tribes being the allies of the French, while others were friendly toward the English, and many Indians, as well as white men, lost their lives before peace was declared.

Before the treaty between France and Great Britain, France had secretly ceded to Spain all that part of Louisiana west of the Mississippi, but it did not pass into her possession until the year 1769.

CHAPTER IV.

Pontiac's War—Indians Attack the Forts and Control the Country.

Pontiac was a powerful Ottawa chief. His influence was felt by all the other Indian tribes, who were always ready to listen to his counsel and advice. He was friendly toward the French people, but hated the English, whom he suspected of the intention to take from the Indians their game and hunting-ground.

While the French possessed the country, they had been kind to the Indians, and to gain their friendship and secure their assistance in their attempt to drive the British out of the territory they claimed, had given them presents of food and clothing, and armed them with rifles with which to fight the English. They treated them with courtesy and listened politely to all they had to say on important subjects. The Indians repaid their kindness with their friendship and protection. They were angry at the approach of the English, whom they considered not only their enemies, but also the enemies of their friends, the French. In sorrow and bitterness they saw the "cross of St. George" take the place of the "fleur de lis" of France.

The British, feeling confident that they could soon conquer the savages, took no pains to gain their good will, but treated them with indifference and contempt. They gave them no presents as the French had done, and sometimes made them pay for things which the authorities had sent as gifts; they disregarded their feelings and wishes in every way, and the Indians became very bitter against them. This feeling was encouraged by the French traders, who still hoped that their king would regain the territory he had lost.

Thus encouraged, the Indians formed the plan to prevent the British from taking possession of the country. In this they were led by Pontiac. In the fall of 1760, after the French had surrendered Canada, but before the entire country was ceded to the British, Major Robert Rogers, with a body of English troops, was sent from Montreal to take possession of Detroit, which the French had agreed to surrender. While on the way, they were met by a messenger of Pontiac, who requested Major Rogers to wait until the arrival of the chief. Pontiac came, and there under the spreading branches of the grand old forest trees, the British officers and soldiers, dressed in their showy uniforms of scarlet and gold, armed with their swords and guns, received the savage chief, who, scantily attired in his robes of fur, ornamented with beads and feathers, with bare head and tattooed limbs, proudly stood before the enemies of his people and demanded to know how they dared to invade his country without his permission.

Major Rogers explained to the indignant chief that he had no designs against the Indians, but that he came to remove the French who had prevented the Indians from being friends with the English. He then offered the chief several

belts of wampum, which were accepted. Although not satisfied that the intentions of the English were friendly, Pontiac gave Major Rogers a small string of wampum, but threateningly said: "I shall stand till morning in the path you are walking," which the soldiers understood to mean that they must go no further without his permission.

The next morning Pontiac returned and held a council with the British officer, and not only promised that he should pass unmolested through the country, but himself accompanied Major Rogers to Detroit. If Pontiac was sincere in his promises of friendship, he either forgot them or changed his mind, for he soon began to plan the destruction of the English. It is believed that the French influenced and encouraged the Indians in this by telling them that the English intended to take their land and drive them from the country, or totally destroy them.

So, in the spring of 1763, began the war known as "Pontiac's war," which ended disastrously to the Indians the following year. Pontiac's plan was to combine the forces of all the Indian tribes and attack all the British forts and trading-posts in the country northwest of the Alleghany Mountains at the same time, capture them, kill the officers and soldiers, or take them prisoners, and then attack the settlements.

Pontiac went from one tribe to another, and held councils with the chiefs and warriors, and made long speeches to them, telling them of his plans to destroy their enemies, and persuading many of them to join him; and those he could not persuade he induced to join him by threatening to destroy them if they did not; and he caused great fires to be kindled at night, which sent weird lights through the dark forests,

and cast strange, fitful shadows under the trees; and here, in the excitement which Pontiac's speeches caused, the Indians held their horrible war-dances for weeks at a time, and dug up the hatchet which they had buried when at peace with nations, and vowed they would not bury it again until the hated English were destroyed or driven from the country; and the squaws, catching the spirit of war, set to work sharpening knives, molding bullets and mixing war paints for the warriors to use in battle. Even the children caught the spirit of the times, and practiced with bows and arrows, and played at killing, scalping and burning English prisoners; and the young men ate raw flesh and drank hot blood to make them brave and courageous. A hundred wild and restless tribes united in the plans of one mighty chief, whose object was to kill, plunder and exterminate the people he hated.

After stirring up the Indians to the highest excitement, Pontiac went to the French soldiers at the forts and settlements and demanded that they help him to destroy the English. From them he learned that the French had ceded all their territory east of the Mississippi River to Great Britain, and that they were waiting for the British soldiers to come and take possession of the forts and of the country.

This made Pontiac and his friends very angry, and they determined to break away entirely from the Europeans and drive them from the country. He gathered his warriors together and they attacked a number of forts and trading-posts, and killed those in charge, or took them prisoners, just as they had planned to do. The time fixed for the general attack was June 1, 1763, and the plan was not to openly attack the forts, but to capture them by strategy, which

suited their savage natures much better than did open warfare. Pontiac had assigned the task of capturing each fort to certain tribes; every tribe knew its task and prepared to fulfill it. Pontiac himself was to attack Detroit, which was a post of great importance, then in command of Major Gladwin.

Early in May, Pontiac, at the head of three hundred warriors, accompanied by their women and children, arrived at Detroit and camped near the fort. This did not excite the suspicion of the British, who had no hint of the dark plans of the savages. The fort was surrounded by three rows of pickets, or sharpened stakes driven close together in the ground, with strong block-houses built at each corner and at the gates. This enclosure contained about one acre and a half of ground. The fort was garrisoned by one hundred and thirty officers and men. When the time for attacking the fort arrived, Pontiac, in order to gain admittance, proposed to hold a council with Major Gladwin, telling him that the Indians wished to take their new father, the king of England, by the hand. Major Gladwin consented to this, and it was agreed that the council should be held within the fort the following day.

Pontiac's plan was to enter the fort with a number of his warriors, armed with rifles that had been shortened so that they might conceal them under their blankets; at the proper time Pontiac was to give the signal and the Indians were to seize the fort and kill all the officers. They were then to open the gates and admit the other Indians, who were to be given the pleasure of assisting in the slaughter of the soldiers and the destruction of the fort. This well formed plan came very near being successful, but we will see that the great chief was defeated in his wicked designs.

It is said that an Indian woman to whom Major Gladwin had been kind betrayed the secret to him for the purpose of saving his life. Although Major Gladwin did not quite believe her story, he took care to put everything in readiness in case there should be an attack. The fort was strongly guarded during the night, lest the savages should conclude to make the attack earlier than the time appointed for the council.

Although the lonely sentinels at the fort watched and listened all through the long, weary hours of the night, they heard nothing but the sound of wild music and dancing over in the Indian camp, where the savages were preparing for the bloody deeds of the morrow. The lights of their campfires glowed fitfully through the trees, and made the darkness more intense by the contrast. The stars looked pityingly down upon this wild scene, and by and by the moon arose in the east and sent long rays of silver light through the dark branches of the forest trees. All night long, the faithful sentinels kept watch over the little garrison; all night long, the shouts and songs and dancing continued and only ceased when the dawn appeared, and the warriors prepared for the savage delights which they believed were awaiting them.

But Major Gladwin and his soldiers were not to be caught napping. The entire garrison was placed under arms, the guards strengthened, and the officers armed with swords and pistols. At the appointed hour, Pontiac and his warriors presented themselves at the entrance of the fort, and were admitted and taken to the council room. The chief, who saw at once that the soldiers were all armed, inquired of Major Gladwin the reason. The officer replied that it was

necessary to keep his young men busy, lest they become indolent.

The council began; Pontiac addressed Major Gladwin in a bold, defiant manner. When he approached the moment that the signal for the attack was to be given, his speech and gestures became more and more threatening, and when he was on the point of making the signal, the drums of the British garrison beat "to arms," the guards leveled their guns, and the officers drew their swords. This was all so unexpected, and so surprised Pontiac, that he failed to give the signal for the attack. Major Gladwin then approached the chief, drew aside his blanket and disclosed the shortened rifle. Reproaching him for his treachery, he ordered him from the fort.

As soon as the Indians were outside of the fort, they gave a savage yell and fired upon it. Determined to gratify their thirst for blood, they went to the house of an old English woman and murdered her and her two sons. They then went to an island near by, and murdered the family of a discharged British officer. For several days they attempted to capture the fort; failing in this, they tried to destroy it by fire, and for months besieged it, killing and taking prisoners many who were sent to the relief of the garrison.

The attacks on some of the other forts were more successful. Pontiac had assigned to the Sacs and Chippewa Indians the task of capturing Fort Mich-i-li-mack-i-nac, which stood between Lake Michigan and Lake Huron. On June the 4th, which was King George's birthday, the Indians who were in camp near the fort amused themselves by playing a game of bat and ball, which they called "bag-gat-i-wa." The game became interesting, and a number of the British

soldiers went out to watch it. In the excitement of the game, the ball was sometimes thrown over the stockade and fell inside the enclosure. At such times, the Indians were allowed to run after it; this occurred several times. Again the ball was thrown over the pickets, and this time the Indians rushed in and took possession of the fort. Seventy English officers and soldiers were killed and scalped, and the remainder of the garrison, about twenty in number, were taken prisoners.

Lieutenant Jenkins was in command of Fort Ouiatanon, on the Wabash River. One day he was induced to go to one of the Indian huts, and while there he was captured and bound, as were several of his men. He was compelled to order his few remaining soldiers to surrender the fort. They were all held prisoners for some time, but were kindly treated. The Indians about Ouiatanon were friendly to the soldiers, but Pontiac had ordered them to capture the fort, and they dared not refuse. The entire British garrison at Miamis was massacred, and nine of the twelve forts situated between Lake Erie and Green Bay, and between Mackinaw and Ouiatanon, were captured within a few weeks.

Besides capturing the British forts and trading-posts, the Indians attacked the frontier settlements, burned the houses, and massacred the inhabitants, or took them prisoners, to die a horrible death by torture. For many months the forests were red with the flames of burning homes, and the air was filled with the shrieks of tortured men, women and children.

For months, Pontiac and his warriors controlled the Ohio valley. The British troops were not permitted to reach the

forts the French king had agreed to surrender, and the French officers were obliged to remain at their posts and await the time when they could give them into the hands of the English.

Neylon de Villiers, who was in command at Fort Chartres, which you will remember was the seat of the military government of the Illinois district, grew weary of this dull task and ordered St. Ange, who still commanded Post Vincennes, to relieve him. This St. Ange prepared to do. He placed the fort in the hands of M. de Roiste de Richardville, acting captain of the militia, and Sieur le Camdre, a soldier of the troops. His parting advice to them was to maintain friendly feelings between the settlers and the Indians, and to prevent disorder. He instructed them, when complaints were made, to call the most influential inhabitants together and settle the matter by votes.

After giving his parting blessing, St. Ange made his way across the prairies of Illinois and took command of Fort Chartres. What a weary time he must have had, waiting in that gloomy old fortress, which was said to be the most convenient and best built fort then in America, until the enemy of his country should come and possess it. He had difficulty in keeping the French and Indians quiet, however, for the savages insisted that the French should help them in their war against the English; but St. Ange, who was a brave and noble man, true to his king who had surrendered the country to the enemy, saw his duty as a soldier and a loyal subject, and determined to perform it faithfully.

Pontiac, not to be turned from his purpose, went from post to post demanding assistance. He continued to wage war against the British, and although he succeeded in cap-

turing a number of forts and killing a great many people, he could not overcome the well-trained British troops sent against him. At last, seeing no hope of success, with many of their warriors slain, their villages destroyed, themselves on the point of starvation, a large number of Indian tribes sued for peace, which was finally concluded October 25, 1764. Pontiac took no part in the treaties of peace between the Indians and the English, although he finally agreed to war no more against the whites, and retired a disappointed man, to the Illinois country, where he was assassinated three years later.

There is something pathetic in the fate of this great warrior, who, seeing the land of his fathers taken from his people, and determined to save it, used all his powers to drive away the enemy, and seeing his hopes blasted, his enemies victorious, himself forsaken by those he sought to serve, turned from the scenes of his early hopes and ambitions,—from the land and the people he loved, and quietly went away, with his sad, disappointing memories, to a strange country,—away from friends and kindred, to die by the assassin's knife.

But there was one who was always kind to this misguided chief. St. Ange, after he surrendered Fort Chartres, retired to the village of St. Louis, which La Salle had established on the Illinois River, where he remained for several years. Here, as at Vincennes, he endeared himself to those about him, and when the warrior chief Pontiac fell by the cowardly hand of the assassin, St. Ange sent across the river for his body, and had it buried with honors, near the old fort at St. Louis; and here, five years later, St. Ange himself, like Pontiac, was buried in the little church-yard.

CHAPTER V.

Indiana becomes a part of Canada—The Revolutionary War.

After the French king had given up his claim to the country east of the Mississippi River, and after the soldiers of the English king had overcome the Indian tribes and taken possession of all the forts and the great northwestern territory, the British government did little to have it settled. Indeed, it tried to prevent the emigrants from going to this part of the country, and that, for a very selfish reason.

The colonists in North America were dependent upon England for many things they used, especially for manufactured articles and for tea and coffee, and the English feared that should they form settlements in portions of the country distance from the sea coast, they would soon find it necessary to manufacture such articles as they needed, for themselves, and so become independent of the mother country, cease to pay tribute to the crown, and perhaps set up a government of their own. This is exactly what the colonists did, and no amount of tyranny could keep them subject to the British government.

The French settlements in Indiana, at Fort Wayne, Vincennes and Ouiatanon, were not disturbed, but after the French officers retired, were left pretty much to take care of themselves. In 1772, however, General Thomas Gage, commander-in-chief of all the king's forces in America, sent a proclamation in the name of George III, king of England, commanding all persons who had settled west of the Alleghany Mountains, to quit those countries, and join some of the English colonies in the East.

When the French settlers at Vincennes received this order, they were very indignant, and refused to leave the homes they had occupied for so many years; so they replied to General Gage that they held "sacred titles" to their lands, which had been given them by Louis XIV, king of France, seventy years before. General Gage then demanded that they produce proof of their titles; but this was not an easy thing to do, for many of them, not realizing the value of their deeds, or titles, had thoughtlessly allowed them to become lost or destroyed.

General Gage then went to England to procure authority to enforce his commands; but while the British king and his lords wished the Indian lands cleared of the white settlers, they would not compel them to leave their homes, and General Gage was obliged to return to America without having accomplished his object.

About this time, England was having trouble with her colonies over on the Atlantic coast, which, being oppressed by the British government, by unjust laws and taxes, and by the tyranny of the British officers in America, were trying to break away from this unjust treatment. So England had enough to do without stirring up strife with the French settlers.

For the purpose of gaining the good will of the Indians and of the French colonists in Canada, who complained that the best hunting grounds were denied them, and to secure their assistance in the war with the American colonists, the British Parliament, which is to England what Congress is to the United States, extended the boundaries of Canada to include the territory out of which the States of Indiana, Ohio, Illinois and Michigan were formed; and to further

secure their good will, the old French laws and customs were restored, and the inhabitants were allowed the privileges of the Catholic religion, which, by the way, was very different from that of the English people. By this act of the British Parliament, Indiana became a part of Canada.

While this greatly pleased the French in Canada, it was very displeasing to the English colonists, who looked upon it as an act to gain the assistance of the French against them, and they were very free to express their displeasure. In Massachusetts, the colonists held a meeting and strongly condemned the action of the British, and recommended that the frontier towns be provided with officers and military supplies, in the fear that the new privileges given them might induce the French and Indians to make war upon the frontier settlements.

This fear was not without cause, for as a result of this act of the English Parliament, the French colonists in America were strong supporters of Great Britain during the early part of the Revolutionary war, and they encouraged the Indians to attack the American settlements in their cruel and barbarous manner.

The colonists then made war upon the Indians, and both the Americans and the savages were mercilessly murdered; nor did the women and children escape, for it is a cruel law of war that the innocent and helpless must also suffer, and many hundreds fell victims to this savage border-warfare.

The Indian method of fighting was very unlike that of the white people. They would seldom come in force upon any place they wished to attack, but would scatter about singly, or in small numbers, and hide in the bushes, or

weeds, or behind trees, or stumps of trees, or along paths or fields where the people must go; or they would watch the springs where they must go for water, and shoot them from some place of concealment, and if they were not afraid to stay, they would take the scalps of their victims, or if they were only wounded, would bear them away as prisoners, and cruelly torture them, sometimes burn them alive, or cut them to pieces, and do many other horrible things before they finally killed them. Often they would bind their victims to a stake and pile a great quantity of wood and brush about them, and set it on fire; and then while the poor tortured creatures shrieked in agony, the Indians would dance and shout about them, and enjoy it all very much indeed. They would destroy their enemies' fields of corn and other grain, and leave them to suffer and starve.

Cruel as these things were, the Indians believed that they had cause for it all. They saw the white people take from them their land and game and had no power to prevent it. They were often unjustly treated and inhumanly murdered by the whites. They saw their people driven farther and farther away, their families and villages destroyed, and were powerless to protect them. What wonder that a spirit of revenge should fill the breasts of these wild children of nature, who were no match for their crafty, and sometimes unscrupulous enemies, who were often almost as cruel as the savages themselves, and murdered them without mercy.

It often happened that little children who were taken prisoners, were adopted by the Indians and brought up like their own children, to live the wild life of the savages. A story is told of a little girl who was stolen by the Indians and lived with them for many years. After a time, there

was a war with the Indians and many white prisoners were taken from them by a British general; among them was this child, now grown quite large. Her grandmother, hearing of this, went to the general's camp, hoping to find the long-lost granddaughter. She eagerly sought among the prisoners and at last was sure she had found her, but the girl had forgotten her own language, and refused to say a word, or make a sign. The old lady was greatly grieved, and bitterly complained that the child she had so often rocked in her arms and sung to sleep, should have forgotten her. "Sing," said the general, "sing the song you used to sing her." In a trembling voice the old woman began to sing. At the first tones the wild girl started,—listened awhile, and then burst into tears. Although her own language was forgotten, the old cradle song was remembered; it touched a tender cord in her heart and awakened long forgotten memories.

After the failure of General Gage to force the French settlers to leave their homes and go to the settlements east of the Alleghany Mountains, Post Vincennes was left undisturbed until 1777. Then Lieutenant-Governor Abbott, with an escort of Canadian soldiers, arrived from Detroit and took command of the fort. He won the affections of the people by his kindness to the poor and by looking after the interests and welfare of the inhabitants, and it was with deep regret that they saw him depart a few months later.

The war between Great Britain and the American colonies, which was called the Revolutionary war, ended in the recognition of the independence of the colonies by Great Britain, and the establishment of an independent government. This was the beginning of the United States gov-

ernment, which, after having passed through many changes, is the same government under which we live.

After the close of the Revolutionary war, Congress, with but little money, and the country greatly in debt, tried to protect the settlements on the borders of the Ohio, from the attacks of the savages. Forts and block-houses were built, and soldiers placed in charge of them, but they were unable to prevent many cruel murders from being committed by the Indians, who were encouraged in their merciless deeds by the British officers, who had been compelled to leave the country east of the Alleghany Mountains in the hands of the Americans, but still held possession of Detroit and Canada.

CHAPTER VI.

George Rogers Clark—His Conquest of the Northwestern Territory.

Now having reached the period when the American colonies had broken away from the parent country, and set up a new government, and given themselves a new name, let us take a hasty glance backward over the history of Indiana.

Probably a few white traders had visited the country before the year 1682, at which time La Salle explored the country, discovered the mouth of the Mississippi River and set up the standard of France, claiming all the territory drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries.

Three French settlements had been formed within the State, two on the Wabash River and one at the present site of Fort Wayne. Then came the war between France and Great Britain, at the close of which all the territory east of

the Mississippi River, with the exception of New Orleans, was ceded to Great Britain, and Indiana passed from the possessions of the French to that of the English. Thus we have seen it ruled by the king of France and the king of England. While it yet remained a part of Louisiana, it was divided into the district of Illinois, and was afterward attached to the province of Canada. The war of the Revolution began. The colonists declared themselves free from Great Britain, and were forming a government for themselves. In order to gain the assistance of the French in Canada, in the war with her colonies, England extended the boundaries of Canada to include Indiana and other territory, and re-established the French laws and customs, and restored to the people the privilege of the Catholic religion. All this time the Indians held possession of the country, roamed through its forests and hunted along its streams. Such was the condition of Indiana when the American colonists declared themselves free from the English government and became an independent people.

The British, still fearing that France would join the Americans and help them in this war, proposed to make peace with the colonists, and offered them everything they had asked for in the beginning; but it was too late. The Americans were determined to be free, and so the war went on. The power of the British was finally broken. The Eastern States were in the hands of the Americans, although the territory northwest of the Ohio River was still possessed by the British. They held the forts and strong points, which were guarded by British soldiers, and they had no intention of surrendering them to the Americans. Had no one disputed with them, doubtless the western boun-

dary of the United States would have been the Ohio River instead of the Mississippi, and Indiana might to-day have been under British rule.

The officers at the British forts greatly annoyed the Americans by furnishing arms and ammunition to the Indians, and by sending them to attack the settlements in Kentucky and on the borders of the Ohio River. And so, while still at strife with the mother country, with but little money in the treasury, and her frontier settlements in danger of being destroyed by the savages, the young government was in a troubled condition.

At this time Virginia claimed the territory west of the Alleghany Mountains, and many of the people who had settled in Kentucky and along the Ohio River, were from that State. The news that the Indians were attacking these settlements, destroying the homes, killing men, women and children, or bearing them away into captivity to be horribly tortured and killed, greatly distressed their friends in Virginia, who were powerless to give them assistance.

About this time a young surveyor from Virginia made a journey through Kentucky, exploring and surveying the land. He was so pleased with the rich and beautiful country that he resolved to make it his home. The name of this young adventurer was George Rogers Clark, and to him more than to any other man, the United States is indebted for the accession of the vast territory out of which the States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin were formed.

Clark was grieved at the suffering and danger to which the settlers on the frontier were exposed, and tried to discover some way to relieve them. He was then but twenty-

five years of age, but he formed a wise and daring plan that would have done credit to a much older head. He came to the conclusion that the only way to secure the safety of the settlements, was to lead an army of men against the British, capture the forts and take possession of the country from the Ohio River to the Mississippi and to the Northern Lakes. He was convinced that the British encouraged the Indians to attack the Americans, and that they furnished them with arms and ammunition, and rewarded them for their cruelty to the defenseless settlers. He believed that if the Americans could gain possession of the country by driving the British out, they could make peace with the Indians, or at least protect their settlements.

This was a dangerous undertaking, but Clark resolved to attempt it. But first, it was necessary to secure the approval and assistance of the State of Virginia, for not only must he have men and arms, but he would need a great many other things before he was ready to enter upon so hazardous an enterprise.

Although Kentucky was claimed by Virginia, and was subject to the laws of that State, her people were not represented in the State Legislature, and had no voice in making the laws that governed them; so Clark persuaded the settlers in Kentucky to hold a meeting for the purpose of forming some plan by which they could get the support and protection of the government of Virginia. At this meeting Gabriel Jones and George Rogers Clark were chosen to represent the Kentuckians, and to appear before the Virginia Legislature and make known the needs and desires of the settlers.

They immediately started on their long journey to Wil-

liamsburg, which was then the capital of Virginia. The country was little more than a wilderness; there were no roads, and they had to find the way as best they could through the woods and thickets, swimming across streams, sleeping under the open sky at night, with the bright stars looking down upon them, or, on rainy nights, finding shelter beneath the branches of the forest trees.

With the greatest difficulty, and very tired and worn, they at last reached Williamsburg. Imagine their disappointment when they found that the Legislature had adjourned and the members gone to their homes. They had traveled weary miles and suffered many hardships without having accomplished their object.

However, Clark was not discouraged. He went at once to Governor Patrick Henry, who was lying sick at his home, and told him of the condition of the settlers in Kentucky, and explained his plans for their protection. Governor Henry was pleased with all he said, and sent him to the Executive Council of the State. Clark presented the letter which the Governor had given him to the Council, and told them of the danger and suffering of the settlers,—that they were at the mercy of the savages, and requested that five hundred pounds of gunpowder be given them, with which to protect themselves.

The Council sympathized with the settlers, but told Clark that they had no authority to furnish the powder at the expense of the State, which was perhaps true, and refused to let him have it unless he would agree to pay for it in case the Legislature failed to approve the act. This Clark refused to do. He replied that Virginia claimed the territory of Kentucky, which was rich and valuable; that the British

were in every way encouraging the Indians and furnishing them with ammunition with which to destroy the settlements on the frontier, and that they might at any time be exterminated for want of the means to defend themselves, and that, with the frontier settlements destroyed, there was nothing to prevent the Indians from attacking the settlements in Virginia, and the British from taking possession of the country east of the Ohio.

The Council still refused to aid him, and Clark went away disappointed. He determined to make one more effort, however, before leaving the town. So he wrote a letter to the members of the Council, informing them that if they still refused to help him, he would apply elsewhere for assistance; at the same time telling them that a "country that was not worth defending was not worth claiming," and hinting that Kentucky might form herself into a separate State.

Fearing that Clark might procure assistance from the State of North Carolina, which already claimed a portion of Kentucky, the Council sent for Clark and promised him that the powder should be sent, and ordered it shipped to Pittsburg for the use of the settlers in Kentucky.

When the Virginia Legislature next met, Clark and Jones were present, and although they were not admitted as members, through their influence the territory now called the "State of Kentucky" was formed into the "County of Kentucky." By this act the people of the new county had a claim to the protection of Virginia. Well pleased with the result of their efforts, Clark and Jones at once started to Kentucky to carry the glad news to the settlers. On the way they stopped at Pittsburg to claim the gunpowder, which had not yet been delivered to the settlements.

With a party of boatmen they started down the Ohio River with their precious freight, but had not gone far until they discovered that they were pursued by Indians, and fearing that the gunpowder might fall into the hands of the savages, they hid it in the woods and went on without it. They afterward sent for it, and the settlers were better able to protect themselves against the attacks of the Indians; but they were still in danger, and Clark did not abandon his plan to capture the British forts, prevent the Indians from receiving arms and ammunition, after which he believed they would be compelled to cease their hostilities and peace could be secured. So he went to the Governor of Virginia and told him his plan for capturing the forts, driving the British out of the country, and adding the territory northwest of the Ohio River to the State of Virginia. The Governor and his Council approved the plan, and provided money with which to meet the expense of the expedition which they proposed to send against the British.

They believed it necessary to keep their real intentions a secret, for should it be made public, the British and Indians would hear of it, and be prepared to resist the Americans and probably defeat them. Besides, if it were known that Clark's purpose was to invade a wild and unknown country, possessed by a powerful enemy and invaded by wild tribes of hostile Indians, it would be very difficult, if not impossible, to induce men to enlist for so dangerous and uncertain an expedition. So Governor Henry wrote two sets of instructions for Colonel Clark; one authorized him to enlist seven companies of men, to act under his instructions, for the defense of the settlements in Kentucky; the other letter contained private instructions to lead his men against the

British forts. These were to be kept secret until he should see fit to make them known.

Colonel Clark was greatly pleased, and at once began his efforts to secure men, assisted by Captain William Herrod, and by his two friends, Captain Bowman and Captain Helm. To encourage men to enlist, a reward of three hundred acres of land was promised each soldier, if the expedition was successful; but it was difficult to persuade men to leave their homes and families to defend a few settlements on the frontier, so Colonel Clark, who desired a force of five hundred men, was only able to secure about one hundred and fifty. He was disappointed, but not discouraged, and hoping that others would join him in Kentucky, he concluded to start with the force he already had.

Late in May, 1778, with his little band of soldiers, a few adventurers and about twenty families who wished to make their homes in Kentucky, he started down the Ohio River and arrived at the Falls of the Ohio, near the end of the same month. Here he selected for a camping ground, a long, narrow strip of land in the Ohio River, called "Corn Island." The island was heavily timbered, with a dense undergrowth of cane, and the waters of the Ohio washed it on every side.

Colonel Clark had grave reasons for selecting this bit of land, entirely surrounded by water. As yet his secret instructions from Governor Henry had not been made known to his soldiers, who believed that they were only going to defend the settlements in Kentucky, and he feared that they might desert him when he told them they were to attack the British forts northwest of the Ohio River. Here, on this island, cut off from the main land, he would be able

to prevent this. So he built a block-house in which he stored his provisions and ammunition, and divided the land among the families for gardens.

Colonel Clark had hoped to receive re-enforcements from Kentucky, but was again disappointed, for only one company joined him. He determined to make the best of the situation, however, and began at once to train his troops. When all was ready, he read them his secret orders, and instructed them to be ready to start the following morning to invade the northwestern territory. Upon hearing this, many of his men, feeling that they had been deceived, and wrongfully treated, became dissatisfied and would have turned back but for the strong will of their leader. The Kentucky company determined to desert, and although the island was strongly guarded, the greater number of them passed the sentinels and escaped.

On a bright morning in June, in the year 1778, Colonel Clark, with his little band of one hundred and fifty-three men, started on an expedition to invade and take possession of a country containing over two hundred thousand square miles of land. Taking with them such things as they needed, and leaving the families and a few men to guard the island, they started down the river. The sun was clear and bright; the birds sang and twittered among the branches of the trees which bordered the broad, beautiful river. The waters gleamed in the bright spring sunlight; the air was sweet with the perfume of flowers. All nature was at peace. As they glided down the stream, what thoughts of friends in far-away Virginia homes filled the minds of these men who were going to meet a treacherous foe in the trackless wilderness! Did they wonder if ever again they should re-

turn to the little island, or be permitted to see their loved ones at home? But their brave leader gave them little time for sad thoughts. About nine o'clock, as they plunged through the rapids below the island, the sky suddenly became darkened, and the sun was obscured from view. This strange occurrence, which was nothing more than an eclipse of the sun, made a deep impression on the minds of the men who had no previous knowledge of it, and who were just starting on what they knew to be a perilous journey.

It was the purpose of Colonel Clark to capture Kaskaskia, which was the capital of the Illinois country, and was situated on the Kaskaskia River, about one mile from the Mississippi. He then intended to seize the smaller towns and forts around it, and afterward capture Vincennes, and probably Detroit. So he rowed down the Ohio with his little band of soldiers, to the mouth of the Tennessee River, which he reached after four days' travel, moving day and night. Here they landed on an island to prepare for the journey across the country. After leaving the island, they moved down the Ohio to within fifty or sixty miles of its mouth. Here they ran their boats up a little creek and hid them, for they could not spare men to guard them. After resting a few hours, they started on their journey across the unbroken country.

It must be remembered that these men had no wagons, or horses to carry their baggage and ammunition, but each must bear his own burdens across the country for a distance of one hundred and twenty miles. On some parts of the journey game and water were scarce, and the men suffered from hunger and thirst. They were in constant danger of being seen and attacked by the Indians.

The morning of the fourth of July, 1778, they came within three miles of Kaskaskia, but were on the opposite side of the river from the town. That night they found some boats, crossed the river silently in the dark, and stealthily marched to the town. Here Colonel Clark divided his men; he sent one company to surround the town, and with the other broke into the fort, captured the British officer, Mr. Rochblave, sent officers through the town to command the inhabitants to keep within their houses, under penalty of death, and before daylight had the town disarmed.

The people of Kaskaskia, who had been told by the British that the Americans were worse than the savages, were very much alarmed, and begged that their lives might be spared, and some of them offered to become slaves to their captors, if they and their families were permitted to live.

Colonel Clark at first treated the people with sternness, but allowed no harm to come to them. He established himself in the fort and waited to see what steps the inhabitants would take. Soon a committee of the leading men of influence in the town came to call upon him. They were much surprised at seeing the American officers, who, having traveled for days through a trackless wilderness, sleeping out of doors in all kinds of weather, were worn and weary, and their clothing tattered, torn and dirty. They looked very unlike the British officers they were accustomed to see attired in their gorgeous uniforms.

Colonel Clark told the committee that he was sorry they had so bad an opinion of the Americans and their cause, and explained to them the nature of the dispute between the United States and Great Britain. He told them that, al-

though he had captured the town and fort, and held them prisoners, no harm should come to them, and if they attached themselves to the American government they should receive its protection. They were greatly relieved upon hearing this, and told Colonel Clark that they had never understood the quarrel between Great Britain and the colonies, and offered to unite with the Americans at once. Colonel Clark replied that they would be required to take the oath of allegiance to the State of Virginia, and gave them a few days to consider the matter among themselves. At the same time, he gave all, except a few particular persons, the privilege of leaving the country if they wished to do so.

Among the men who met Colonel Clark was one who afterward rendered valuable service to the country, and of whom it has been said that, next to George Rogers Clark and Francis Vigo (of whom we shall have more to say), the United States is more indebted for the possession of the Northwestern Territory, than to any other man. This was M. Gibault, a Catholic priest of great influence among the French settlers, not only at Kaskaskia and the towns in the Illinois country, but also at Vincennes and other towns on the Wabash.

Father Gibault requested that his people be permitted to assemble in the church, that they might confer together in their distressed condition. Colonel Clark consented to this, and assured the priest that he had no intention of interfering with their religious liberty, and by his wisdom and tact quite won him to the American cause. So the people all gathered together in the church, and Father Gibault and the other men who had gone with him to see the American

officers, talked to them and explained the things Colonel Clark had said to them, and quite removed the fears of the common people, who not only took the oath of allegiance to the State of Virginia, but many of them offered to join the Americans against the British.

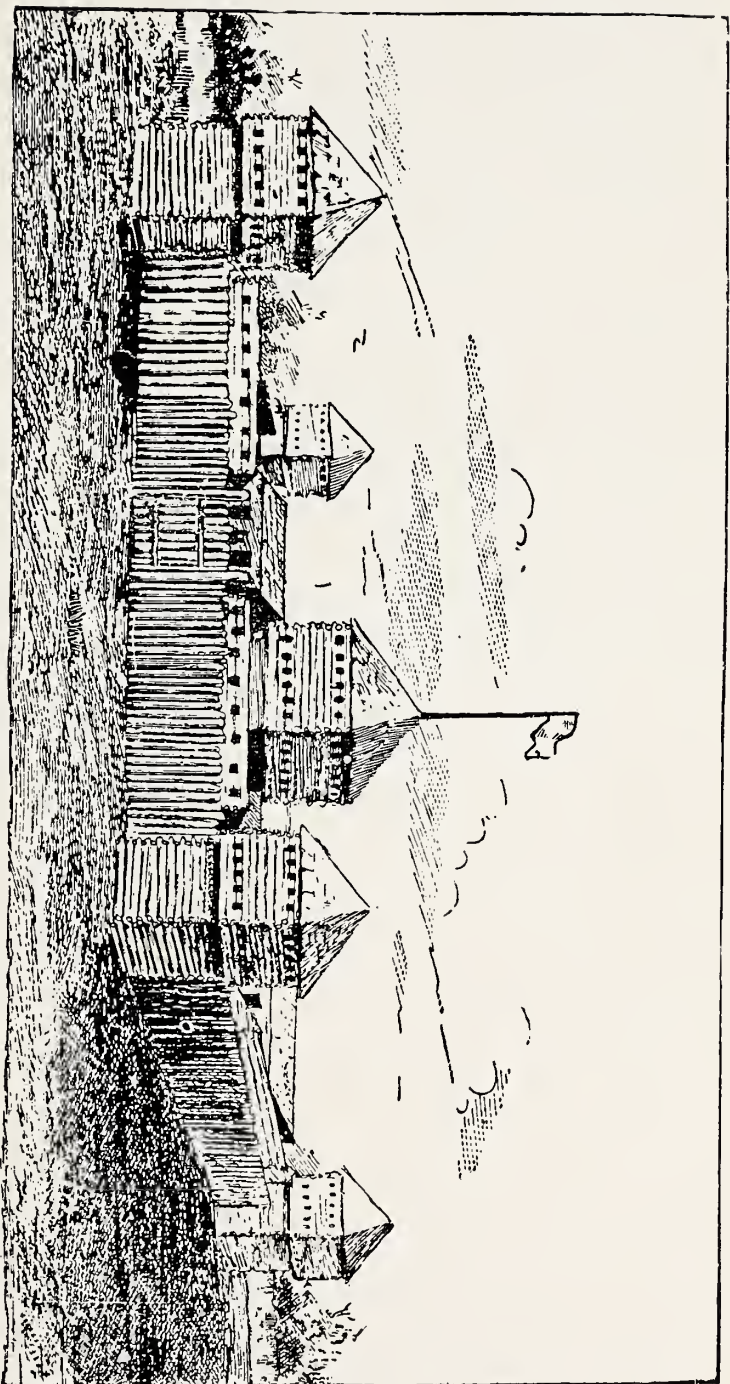
CHAPTER VII.

Vincennes Surrendered—Retaken by the British—Captured by Colonel Clark.

After the capture of Kaskaskia, Colonel Clark sent soldiers to capture the other towns and forts in the Illinois country and to make peace with the Indians. It was still his intention to capture Vincennes, or "Fort Gage," as the English called it. When Father Gibault learned of his purpose to capture the forts on the Wabash, he offered to go to Vincennes and win the inhabitants to the American cause without the use of arms. This pleased Colonel Clark very much, for he knew the priest had great influence among the French inhabitants on the Wabash, as well as at Kaskaskia, and he readily consented to the plan he proposed.

Accompanied by his friend, Dr. Jean B. Lafont, who was also a man of influence among the French settlers, and taking with them a few men (among whom Colonel Clark sent a spy), Father Gibault started on his journey, and in due time reached Vincennes.

After he had spent a few days explaining matters to the people, they agreed to the proposal he made them, and except a few friends of Governor Abbott—the British officer



FORT SACKVILLE (VINCENNES).

*From English's
"Conquest of the Northwestern Territory."*

in charge of the fort, who was absent at the time—they went in a body to the church and solemnly took the oath of allegiance to the State of Virginia. They elected an officer to command the fort, took down the British flag, and soon the Stars and Stripes were floating over the fort, to the astonishment of the Indians, who had never before seen our beautiful banner. This was the first American flag ever displayed in Indiana.

Soon everything was settled, and the inhabitants of Vincennes began to feel that they were citizens of the United States. They informed the Indians, who did not quite know what to make of all this, that their old father, the king of France, was come to life, and was mad with them for fighting for his enemies, the English, and they advised them to make peace with the Americans as soon as possible, or they might expect the “land to be very bloody.”

When the news of Father Gibault's success reached Colonel Clark, he sent his friend Captain Helm to command the fort, and appointed him Indian agent for the Wabash country. This was the first American officer placed in command in Indiana. He was afterward joined by a few American and Creole volunteer troops and friendly Indians. Captain Helm won the confidence of the French inhabitants at Vincennes, and was soon on friendly terms with the Indian tribes in the vicinity; but his friendship with the savages was disturbed by a British agent named Celeron, who was at a small fort in the vicinity of the Wea village, near the present city of LaFayette. Colonel Clark sent a company of soldiers from Kaskaskia to capture Celeron. They succeeded in taking the fort and in capturing about fifty prisoners, but the agent himself escaped.

In the meantime, Colonel Clark was successful in capturing the towns and forts in the Illinois country, and in making friends with the Indians, who flocked to him in large numbers, to treat for peace and hear what the "Big Knife," as they called him, had to say. Some of these tribes came long distances, traveling as far as five hundred miles. They were not sincere in their professions of friendship, however, for soon afterward they tried to make Colonel Clark their prisoner, and had they succeeded, he would have doubtless have been tortured and killed. Many of the friendly Indians offered to join Clark's army, but he would not accept their offered assistance.

While Colonel Clark was at Kaskaskia, making peace with the Indians and winning the friendship of the French settlers, Lieutenant-Governor Hamilton, who was in command of the British troops at Detroit, hearing of the capture of Vincennes and the towns on the Wabash and in the Illinois country, raised a company of five hundred men, composed of English, Canadians and Indians, and started for the Illinois country. He captured the spies which Colonel Clark had sent to watch the British, and on December 15th appeared without warning before the fort at Vincennes.

Captain Helm, who commanded the fort, had only one man to assist him; but he stood bravely by his guns until Governor Hamilton agreed to treat him as a prisoner of war. He then surrendered the fort, and Vincennes again fell into the hands of the British. The Stars and Stripes were taken down, the British flag again floated on the breeze, and the name of the fort changed to "Sackville."

Again the frontier settlements were at the mercy of the savages; again the shrieks of tortured men and women were

heard, and the nights made hideous with the fierce yells of the Indians, and the forests lighted with the flames of burning homes. A company of forty men was sent to capture Colonel Clark, but was unsuccessful. Colonel Clark soon heard of the capture of Vincennes by the British, and that Captain Helm was a prisoner at the fort, but could learn nothing more until January 29th, when Francis Vigo arrived at Kaskaskia and gave him information concerning affairs at Vincennes.

As Francis Vigo afterward became a man of influence in Indiana, and did much to wrest the northwestern territory from the hands of the British and attach it to the United States, it is well to pause here and learn something of the man to whom we are so greatly indebted. Clark, Vigo, Gibault, are names which should stand on the list of Indiana's honored men. Francis Vigo was a Spaniard by birth. In his youth he left his home and joined a Spanish regiment, with which he sailed for Havana and afterward for New Orleans. There he left the army and joined a company of traders whose headquarters were at St. Louis. In his travels through the Illinois country, he met Colonel Clark, and being in sympathy with the American cause, offered him his services. Here was the very man to send to Vincennes to learn and report the condition of affairs there, and his services were gladly accepted.

In company with one servant, Vigo started on his errand, but was captured by the Indians, taken to Vincennes and delivered into the hands of Governor Hamilton, who suspected him of being a spy. Having no proof against him, however, he offered him his liberty if he would promise to do no injury to the British cause during the war with the

Americans. Vigo refused to make such promise, and was held a prisoner on parol—that is, he was allowed his freedom, but was required to report at Fort Sackville every day.

Father Gibault, who was at Vincennes at this time, resolved to secure Vigo's release. He went to Governor Hamilton, in company with a number of citizens, and notified him that unless Vigo was released, no more supplies should be furnished him by the inhabitants of Vincennes. Knowing the influence of the priest, and being dependent upon the French settlers for provisions for the garrison, and wishing to retain their friendship, Governor Hamilton agreed to free his prisoner on condition that he should do nothing against the British interests on his way to St. Louis.

Vigo promised, and taking with him two "voyageurs" (vwa-ya-zhurz), or "woodmen," he embarked in a piroque and rowed rapidly down the Wabash River to the Ohio—down that stream to its mouth, then hastened up the Mississippi until he reached the village of St. Louis. He had kept his promise; he had done nothing on the way to injure the British cause. He was now at the end of his journey and free to do as he chose. Hurriedly changing his clothing and collecting a few needed articles, he again entered his boat, and rowed with the current back to Kaskaskia, to inform Colonel Clark of all that he had learned at Vincennes. The information was not very encouraging to Clark and his little band of soldiers. Lieutenant-Governor Hamilton held Fort Sackville with eighty well-trained men, and was well supplied with arms and ammunition. He had improved and strengthened the fort, and was liable to receive reinforcements any day. If allowed to remain until spring he would doubtless have a large force of soldiers and In-

dians, and would probably march against Kaskaskia and the towns in the Illinois country.

With his usual promptness and daring, Colonel Clark decided to attack Fort Sackville before this could be done, and immediately began his preparations. He bought a large Mississippi River boat, called the "Willing," which he mounted with eight large guns, loaded with artillery and provisions, and manned with forty-six men. Placing all in command of Lieutenant Rogers, he gave orders for him to force his way up the Wabash as far as the mouth of White River, and there await further instructions. The boat was much admired by the inhabitants of Kaskaskia, for, as Colonel Clark said, "No such thing had been seen in the country before."

The "Willing" sailed on February 4th, and the following day Colonel Clark, with one hundred and thirty men, left Kaskaskia in charge of the militia, and started to march to Vincennes, a distance of one hundred and sixty miles.

This journey across the unbroken prairies of Illinois was one of hardship and suffering to those brave soldiers and their gallant leader. It was in the middle of winter, and although not very cold, it rained almost continuously, and the prairies were very wet.

In those early days, before the country had been drained, the ground became soaked with water during the rainy season, which, finding no outlet, stood in great ponds and lakes, sometimes covering miles and miles of land. Through this the troops were obliged to pass, oftentimes waist deep in water. The streams were swollen and almost impassable, and to add to their suffering, their food gave out, and weary, wet and hungry, they were obliged to travel on

through the pouring rain, finding no spot where they could rest or dry their clothing. On the morning of the 18th, after fourteen days of weary marching, the soldiers found themselves ten miles from Vincennes, but separated from it by a swollen river over which they must pass, while the most of the country which lay between them and the town was covered with water three feet or more in depth. The "Willing" was not expected for two or three days; they had no food and could not wait for her. What should they do? Men were sent to look for boats, but none could be found.

For two days the troops remained in this condition. The men were discouraged and some of the French volunteers threatened to return. It needed the strong will of their leader to govern them at this trying time. To keep them occupied, Colonel Clark put them to work making canoes. That day, five Frenchmen came down the river in a boat and told Colonel Clark that his presence had not yet been discovered; that the people of Vincennes were friendly toward the Americans, and that two canoes were adrift in the river above.

All this was encouraging. Men were sent after the boats, one of which they secured. That day one of the men killed a deer, which saved them from famishing. The next day they were all ferried across the river, and marched for three miles through water which in places was up to their necks. In the evening they camped on a little hill, but they were again without food, and half starving.

The following day, they marched three miles further, still without food. That night the weather turned very cold, and the wet clothing of the men froze upon them; they almost perished from cold and hunger. They had still four

miles to travel through water up to their breasts, and covered with a thin coating of ice. How could they, in their weak and famished condition, make that dreaded four miles? Many of the men were on the point of turning back; but the courage of their leader never deserted him, and he left them no time to hesitate. He made them a short speech, urging them to keep up their courage, and pointing to a wood beyond a plain, told them that there lay the end of their journey, and without waiting for a reply, he plunged into the water, breaking the ice as he went.

The men were encouraged by this act, and with a shout for their dauntless commander, followed him. Calling to Major Bowman, who was second in command, and Clark's most trusted friend, he instructed him to fall back with twenty-five men, and to shoot anyone who refused to follow. They reached the woods with great difficulty, but found no dry land. On they plunged through the water, stumbling over roots and fallen trees, the boats following the nearly exhausted men, and picking up those who could go no further. At last dry land was reached, and fires were kindled. Soon the wet and tired men were warm and dry. A boat containing some squaws and children was captured. In the boat were found some buffalo meat, corn, tallow, and some kettles. Food was quickly prepared, and the spirits of the men began to revive. Their long journey was nearly at an end. They were now fairly comfortable, and were able to take a hopeful view of the situation, and after resting a few hours, they were ready to attack Fort Sackville.

Colonel Clark knew that with his small force of weak and exhausted men, it would be impossible to capture the fort unless he could first secure the inhabitants of the village, or

at least prevent them from assisting the British soldiers. So he caused a French settler to be captured and sent him to inform the people of Vincennes that his "army" was about to attack the fort, and that all who were friendly to the Americans must remain within their houses, and that those who were friendly to the English king must go to the fort and assist Governor Hamilton.

This scheme was successful. The villagers were all favorable to the Americans, and believing that Colonel Clark was approaching with a large army, they kept to their houses. Just as it was growing dark, Colonel Clark marched his men over a high point of ground in such a manner as to make it appear that he had a much larger force than he really had. He then marched into the village, which immediately surrendered. Some of the citizens offered to join the soldiers, and an Indian chief called "The Tobacco" offered Colonel Clark a hundred warriors. The chief was treated with kindness, but his services were declined. The British soldiers were not informed of the approach of the Americans and had no warning of danger until fired upon. They resisted the attack, and all night long the firing continued. The next morning, Colonel Clark sent a messenger under a flag of truce, to Governor Hamilton, demanding the surrender of the fort, and threatening to show no mercy should he be obliged to take it by force.

During the night the Americans had thrown entrenchments of earth across the street, and protected by this, they had every advantage over the enemy. Mr. Dunn, in his history of Indiana, says: "These frontiersmen were at that time the best marksmen known to the world, and at these

distances—from sixty to one hundred and twenty yards—a silver dollar was as large a target as they cared for. Whenever a port-hole was open a dozen bullets flew through it, playing such havoc with the gunners that the cannon could not be fired with effect, and causing them soon to be abandoned. Every crack at which a sign of life appeared was made a target. Several British soldiers fell with bullets through their eyes.” The British became discouraged, and in the afternoon Governor Hamilton sent a flag of truce with a letter to Colonel Clark, suggesting that they cease firing for three days, and requesting him to meet the British officer at the gate of the fort to talk over the situation.

Colonel Clark would agree to nothing but complete surrender, and replied that if Governor Hamilton wished to see him he would meet him at the village church. This he did. Colonel Clark took with him his friend Major Bowman; Governor Hamilton was accompanied by the British officer, Major Hay, and his American prisoner, Captain Helm. They held a council in the church, but could come to no agreement, for Colonel Clark would accept nothing but entire surrender, and to this Governor Hamilton would not consent. Captain Helm urged Colonel Clark to accept milder terms, but was informed that, being a prisoner, he had no right to speak in council. Governor Hamilton at once offered to release Captain Helm, but Clark would not permit him, and insisted that the prisoner must return to the fort until matters were settled. They then returned to their respective positions and began firing again.

On the 25th of February, 1779, the fort was surrendered with all its stores and supplies, and the British officers and soldiers were held as prisoners. The following day, two

British officers and thirty-eight soldiers who were on the way to reinforce Governor Hamilton, with seven boat loads of provisions, were captured by the Americans. The next day the "Willing" arrived. The crew were much disappointed that they had no part in the capture of Fort Sackville. The British officers were sent to the Ohio Falls, and afterwards taken to Virginia, where all except Hamilton, Hay, and two others, were released on parol. These four were kept in prison for several months, but, on recommendation of General George Washington, they were finally released. The private soldiers were set at liberty on taking an oath that they would not again bear arms against the Americans. The Stars and Stripes again floated over Vincennes, never to be replaced by British colors.

So ended the conquest of the Northwestern Territory, and all this vast country was added to the State of Virginia, and the western boundary of the United States fixed at the Mississippi River instead of the Ohio. The attacks on the settlements ceased for a time, and the Indians professed to be at peace with the Americans. The "Piankeshaw" Indians, when they found that it was not Colonel Clark's intention to drive them from their hunting-ground, presented him with the gift of a tract of land two and a half leagues square (seven and a half miles square) on the west side of the Ohio Falls.

After the capture of the fort, Colonel Clark did not remain long at Vincennes. The garrison was placed in command of Captain Shelly, and the name changed to Fort Patrick Henry, in honor of the Governor of Virginia. Captain Helm was appointed superintendent of Indian affairs on the Wabash, and Colonel Clark sailed down the river on

board the "Willing," taking with him seventy of his men and the boats he had captured from the British. The waters were very high and in a few days the little fleet arrived at Kaskaskia, to the great joy of the friends who were anxiously waiting to receive them.

Again we see a change in the government of the territory now called Indiana. From the possession of the British, it passed into that of the United States, and became a part of the State of Virginia, and was organized into the "County of Illinois."

After the capture of Vincennes and the towns in the Illinois country, Colonel (now General) Clark turned his thoughts toward the capture of Detroit, but was disappointed in his efforts to secure reinforcements to his troops, and finally the plan was abandoned. Dividing his forces between Post Vincennes, Kaskaskia, Cahokia and the Ohio Falls, he took up his own quarters at the Falls, that he might watch over the affairs of the territory. After this, immigration to the territory northwest of the Ohio River rapidly increased. It is said that in the spring of 1780 three hundred large family boats arrived at the Falls of the Ohio.

It is ever to be regretted that the men who were the instruments in securing to the United States this vast and valuable territory were never fully rewarded for their services. Clark, Vigo, and Gibault, the trio which stands out in bold relief in connection with the conquest and early settlement of the country lived to feel the ingratitude of their countrymen. Father Gibault parted from his property that the money might aid Clark in carrying on the expedition, and in holding possession of the country; Francis Vigo loaned him many thousand dollars for the same purpose,

and both believed, as did Clark, that the government of the United States and that of Virginia, would repay them, but they were disappointed in their expectations. Their just claims were not allowed until both had been reduced to poverty, and Francis Vigo had been in his grave many years before his claim was adjusted. Both men died very poor, and General Clark lived a disappointed man for many years at his home near the Falls of the Ohio.

CHAPTER VIII.

Indiana Becomes the Property of the United States—Indian Outbreaks—General Wayne.

The Governor and people of Virginia were well pleased when they learned that all the British posts and towns in the Illinois country had been captured by Colonel Clark and his brave Virginia troops. It was an important conquest, and words of praise for Colonel Clark were spoken by every one. Governor Henry sent a letter to the Continental Congress, giving an account of the success of Colonel Clark's movements, and the Virginia Legislature adopted resolutions of thanks and approval, and passed a law organizing all the territory northwest of the Ohio into the County of Illinois. Under this law, Governor Patrick Henry appointed Colonel John Todd County Lieutenant of the Illinois, or, Commandant-in-Chief, as he was sometimes called, and gave him authority to appoint deputy commandants, militia officers and commissioners. He also had the power to pardon all offenders, except those guilty of mur-

der and treason; these were required to be brought before the Governor and General Assembly.

So, Colonel John Todd became the first ruler over the new territory. He arrived at Kaskaskia in May, 1779, a few days after Clark's return from Vincennes. His first act was to order an election for the purpose of choosing officers for the territory. This was the first election held in Indiana and the country northwest of the Ohio. Colonel Clark was appointed General and given command of all the troops and the management of the military affairs in the Illinois County.

In June, 1779, Colonel Todd visited Vincennes and established the first court in Indiana. It was composed of several magistrates, and Colonel J. M. P. Legras, who was commandant of the fort, was made president of the court. These officers held their positions until 1787, and their authority was unquestioned, until they assumed the power to give away large tracts of land to officers and citizens of the town, not forgetting to provide for themselves and for each other. Colonel Todd only remained in the Illinois country from May until the following winter. He was elected representative to the Virginia Legislature from the County of Kentucky, in the spring of 1780, and was killed in battle two years later.

From the capture of the fort by the Virginia troops until the arrival of General Harmar, in 1787, the inhabitants of Vincennes and the other towns in Indiana, had a pretty hard time. All commerce was shut off between Detroit and the towns on the Wabash, while the Indians on the south, who were British allies, became foes to the Americans, and prevented trade from being carried on down the Mississippi

River. As a consequence, prices became very high; the cost of provisions was four or five times as much as formerly, and the merchants were accused of taking advantage of the situation by charging exorbitant prices and becoming rich off the misfortunes of the settlers, and many were obliged to move away on account of the hard times.

To make matters worse for the settlers, the soldiers were removed from Vincennes in 1780, and the Indians, losing their fear of the Americans, again became hostile and attacked the forts and settlements and did great damage. A number of expeditions were sent against them, but failed to stop their depredations.

The winter of 1782 was one of great and terrible suffering on the western frontier. Many settlers were murdered or taken prisoners and their homes plundered and destroyed. Again expeditions were sent against the savages, and many Indian villages and fields of grain were destroyed, although the most of the Indians made their escape. During this winter a provisional treaty was concluded between the United States and Great Britain, which prevented the Indians from securing supplies and ammunition from the British, so they were obliged to cease their hostilities, and for three years there was quiet on the frontier, during which time the Americans offered peace to the Indians and tried to purchase land from them. Some of the tribes were quite willing to be friends and to sell some of their lands, but the greater number were determined to keep their territory northwest of the Ohio, and, fearing the Americans would take advantage of some of the weaker tribes, and secure their lands, they formed a confederacy, or band, called the Great Northwestern, or, Miami Confederacy, and made an

agreement that no land could be ceded to the Americans without the consent of all the tribes, and they determined to fight for their hunting-ground and to prevent any territory belonging to them from falling into the hands of the Americans. Indiana was the seat of this confederacy, and for ten years no settlements were allowed to form north of the Ohio River.

You will remember that by the conquest of George Rogers Clark all the country lying north and west of the Ohio River, as far as the Mississippi River and the great lakes, became a part of the State of Virginia, and was called the County of Illinois, and that Indiana was a part of this county. The time was approaching when another change was to take place in the territory.

The Virginia Legislature resolved, under certain conditions, to give the country Colonel Clark had taken from the British to the United States Government, and it sent an offer of this gift to the Continental Congress. The members of Congress agreed to accept the gift, and the Virginia Legislature passed an act authorizing their delegates in Congress to deed to the United States all that territory lying northwest of the Ohio River which was claimed by the State of Virginia. The Virginia delegates who made or executed this deed were Thomas Jefferson, Samuel Hardy, Arthur Lee and James Monroe. Two of these men, Thomas Jefferson and James Monroe, afterward became Presidents of the United States.

One of the conditions which Virginia proposed, and to which Congress agreed, was that the territory should be divided and formed into States, and that each State should not be less than one hundred nor more than one hundred

and fifty miles square, or as near that extent as possible. Another condition was that the French settlers at Vincennes and Kaskaskia should have the titles to their lands confirmed, or made perfect, and that one hundred and fifty thousand acres of land should be given to Colonel Clark and his officers and men. This tract of land was laid off on the Ohio River near the "falls," and was called the "Illinois Grant," or "Clark's Grant."

Although the territory then belonged to the United States, the Indians still claimed and possessed the greater part of the land, just as the farmer owns and possesses his land, which also forms a part of the United States. Before it could be settled it was necessary for the Americans either to drive the savages out of the country and rob them of their land or to purchase it of them.

The government resolved to take the honorable course and purchase the land in as large quantities as possible, and as rapidly as the territory was secured to encourage emigrants to settle upon it. They had difficulty in doing this, however, for the Indians refused to part from their hunting-grounds which had been the home of their tribes for no one knows how long; so, in the month of August, 1785, they called a grand council of all the Indian tribes at Ouiatanon, on the Wabash, for the purpose of forming a plan by which they could prevent the Americans from settling north of the Ohio River. The Indians gathered in large numbers from all parts of the great northwestern territory. There were many hundreds of them, and they came hundreds of miles through the forests and across the prairies, to be present at this council, or convention, as we would now call it.

The chiefs and leading men of the tribes made long

speeches, in which they told the Indians how the white men were trying to rob them of their land and game, and kill or drive them from the country their fathers had claimed so long. They painted their faces, and decked themselves in their wild fashion, and held their hideous war dances, and so excited the savages and aroused their passion for blood and murder that they were ready to make war on the Americans at once, and were eager to plunder, torture and kill them.

The Indians really had cause for alarm, for the white men had been very unjust to them, and in some cases had been almost as cruel as the savages themselves and had killed and robbed them without mercy. So all these things were talked over at this council meeting, and the great men decided that they would go to war against the Americans, and kill or drive them from the country. The other Indians were eager to follow their leaders, and flourished their tomahawks in a terrible manner and threatened to kill all the white people they could find. Then the chief men notified the French settlers at Vincennes and the other towns on the Wabash that they must leave the country, for war was to be made against the Americans and that all who remained would be treated as enemies.

The Indians returned to their homes to get ready for war. The following winter they began their bloody work. Several settlers were killed, and in the spring a number of traders were attacked. At Vincennes the American farmers were attacked and their homes destroyed. This so alarmed the settlers that many of them fled to Kentucky; others were killed, and others moved into the fort for protection.

Matters grew from bad to worse; no one was safe for an

hour; so the next year a strong force of men was sent from Kentucky to protect the settlers. The plan was to attack all the principal Indian towns at the same time, destroy them and kill or drive the inhabitants away.

General Clark, at the head of a thousand men, marched from the Falls of the Ohio toward Vincennes, but, unfortunately, he was suffering from what he felt to be an injustice by the government and had taken to drink, and so lost the confidence of his men; he was unable to control them as he had done on that terrible march from Kaskaskia; many of them deserted him, and the expedition had to be abandoned. Another force, which was sent out at the same time under Captain Logan, was more successful. At Vincennes a council was held by the officers belonging to Clark's expedition, and the fort was again garrisoned by two hundred and fifty infantry and a company of artillery under Captain Thomas Dalton.

On October 5, 1787, the Continental Congress elected Arthur St. Clair Governor of the Northwestern Territory and instructed him to secure peace, as far as possible, between the United States and the Indian tribes occupying the country, and to regulate the trade, secure all the land he could from the Indians, gain the friendship of the chief men of the tribes, prevent them from combining against the Americans and to secure the good will of the settlers. As yet no States had been formed, and all the territory which now composes the States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin and a part of Ohio and Minnesota was called the "Northwestern Territory."

The first act of Governor St. Clair was to organize a government for the new territory. In July, 1788, he went to

Marietta, Ohio, and with the assistance of the judges of the general court of the Territory, he published a number of laws for the government of the people. The most of these laws related to the establishment and holding of courts in the Territory. It was more than a year before he visited the Illinois country to organize a government there.

After the conquest of the Northwestern Territory the settlers along the Wabash River suffered great misfortunes. They had parted with everything they could spare to aid Colonel Clark and to furnish provisions for his troops, taking certificates from him, which the State of Virginia had refused to pay. For three years in succession their crops were destroyed by floods, and one year by untimely frosts. Their trade with the Indians had been broken off, and the settlers had become very poor, and some of them were on the point of starvation. They were further troubled by an order from the government to have the land claimed by the French inhabitants surveyed, at the expense of the owners, for the purpose of establishing their claims. This they were too poor to do. Our old friend, Father Gibault, who was still their adviser, wrote a pathetic letter to Governor St. Clair, in which he told him of the miserable condition of the settlers; that they were scarcely able to sustain their pitiful existence, and should not be required to pay the expense of a survey, for which they could see no necessity.

In the hope of making peace with the Indians, Governor St. Clair wrote letters to the different tribes, and Major John F. Hamtranck, who was commandant at Fort Vincennes, sent Antonie Gamlin to deliver them. Gamlin started from Vincennes, April 5, 1790, and visited the tribes of the Piankeshaws, Kickapoos, Ojibwas, Dela-

wares, Shawnees, Pottawattomies, Miamis and Weas. The speeches he read to them were listened to with interest, but each tribe told him they could do nothing without the consent of all the other tribes, on account of the confederacy they had formed.

Gamlin traveled from tribe to tribe, making speeches and trying to secure peace between them and the Americans, but the reply was always the same; each tribe must consult the others before they could give him an answer. They requested him to go to Detroit, which was the capital of the confederacy, but he refused to go, and they promised that in "thirty nights" a young man should be sent from each tribe to inform him of their decision.

He had scarcely left them, however, when some of these tribes went to war against the Americans; one man was captured and burned alive at the Miami village. When thirty nights had passed, the young Indian men, one from each tribe, came, as they had promised, and told Gamlin that there could be no peace between them and the Americans.

When Governor St. Clair received notice that the Indians refused to treat for peace, that they were determined to go to war, and that there was no hope of securing the safety of the settlers on the frontier, he determined to go to Fort Washington to consult General Harmar about sending a strong expedition against the Indians. Leaving his secretary, Winthrop Sargent, to perform the duties of Governor during his absence, he started on his journey. It took him more than a month to travel from Kaskaskia to Fort Washington, which was situated where the city of Cincinnati now stands. Arriving at Fort Washington, he had a long conference with General Harmar, who decided to send a strong force of men against the Indians.

George Washington, who was then President of the United States, gave General Harmar authority to call one thousand militiamen from the State of Virginia and five hundred from Pennsylvania, which he at once did, himself leading the expedition. He succeeded in destroying many Indian villages, and severely punished the savages for their cruelty, but failed to compel them to sue for peace, as the President expected him to do; nor did he greatly relieve the suffering of the settlers along the Ohio River.

Other expeditions followed this, and many towns and villages were destroyed, and many Indians were killed and taken prisoners, but still they were not conquered. They were fighting for their homes and the land of their fathers, which they believed to be rightfully theirs, and which they also believed the Americans were trying to take from them; and they were fighting for their race, which they believed the whites were trying to destroy. Other nations have fought for their homes, their families and their liberties, and been extolled for the act. The Indians were doing no less, but the struggle was an unequal one.

Governor St. Clair collected a large force of men for the purpose of establishing a strong military post on the Wabash near the Miami village. He reached this place on November 23d with about fourteen hundred men. The next day they were attacked by the Indians, and the troops being untrained, he was defeated with great loss of life. Thirty-nine officers and five hundred and ninety-three men were killed and taken prisoners. Twenty-two officers and two hundred and forty-two men were wounded. Those who were captured were treated with the utmost cruelty by the savages; their limbs were torn from their bodies and they were otherwise horribly tortured.

After this defeat Governor St. Clair resigned his office of Major General, and Anthony Wayne was appointed to command the troops in the Northwestern Territory. With him were associated General James Wilkinson, who afterward succeeded him, and General Thomas Posey, who became Governor of Indiana Territory. Both were officers in the Revolutionary war, and were men of military reputation. From the early part of the year 1792 to August, 1793, General Wayne was busy recruiting, organizing and training his army.

All this time the United States Government was trying to procure treaties of peace and friendship with the Indians, by sending messengers to assure them that the government had no intention of robbing them and would take no lands for which the Indians had not been well paid, or had not by fair treaty ceded to the United States. But the Indians did not believe this and captured and killed some of the messengers sent to them. This condition of affairs continued until August, 1794, when the Indians were finally overcome by the large force under General Wayne.

On the 26th of July, 1793, General Scott, with a force of mounted Kentucky volunteers, joined General Wayne at Fort Greenville, Ohio, where he had assembled his troops. Two days later the entire force marched toward the Indian towns on the Maumee River. Near the present city of Maumee, Ohio, stood the Fort Miami, which, although within the limits of the United States, was still in the hands of the British soldiers. Here, almost within reach of the British guns, a battle was fought between the Indians and the united forces of General Scott and General Wayne, in which the Americans gained a complete victory over the savages.

These two battles were fought within the present State of Ohio, but it required one more battle to destroy the Indian confederacy and gain a final victory over them. This decisive battle, one of the most important in Indian warfare, was fought on Indiana soil.

On taking command of the United States troops, General Wayne at once saw the necessity of erecting a fortification which would command the portage, or high ridge of land, that separates the Maumee and Wabash Rivers, and so prevent all communication between the Indian tribes on the east and those on the west. If this could be done, the Indian confederacy could be easily destroyed and a final victory obtained. With this purpose in view, on the 14th of September, General Wayne moved his army toward Ke-ki-on-ga, the deserted Miami village which stood where the rivers St. Mary and St. Joseph unite. Here he caused a fort to be built and strongly garrisoned, and placed it in command of Colonel John F. Hamtranck, who gave it the name of Fort Wayne. Here, on August 20, 1794, the final battle was fought which broke the power of the Miami confederacy. "Little Turtle," the chief of the Miami tribes, advised his people to make peace with the Americans, but the savages had been victorious over Generals St. Clair and Harmar and believed they could defeat General Wayne; but in this they were mistaken. They were no match for the well trained troops of General Wayne, who gained a complete victory over them. The power of the Indian confederacy was destroyed by this battle, and a final treaty of peace was concluded at Greenville, Ohio, August 3, 1795.

At this grand council articles of agreement were signed, fixing the boundary lines of the Indian lands. The United

States agreed to pay for certain lands ceded by the Indians and also to pay to them certain yearly sums, called annuities. This agreement was signed by the Chippewas, Ottawas, Pottawattomies, Weas, Wyandottes, Delawares, Shawnees and Kickapoos. The treaty was satisfactory to the United States Government and to all the other Indian tribes occupying the territory.

After this defeat, Little Turtle gathered his people together and returned with them to the country on the upper Wabash, where he spent the rest of his life trying to save them from the influence of bad white men. He saw the effects of intemperance upon the Indians, and, calling his people together, talked to them of the evils of "fire water," and proposed to them that they should all promise to drink no more of it. The Indians agreed to this, and they all gave Little Turtle a pledge, which, with few exceptions, they faithfully kept. So, to the Indian chief, Little Turtle, belongs the honor of forming the first temperance society in Indiana.

After the treaty of peace was signed between the Indians and the United States, the efforts of the government were directed toward civilizing the savages in this part of the country. This, however, was a difficult undertaking; but few of them could be induced to cultivate the land, or work in shops, or perform any kind of manual labor. They disliked work of all kinds and refused to live by any means except hunting. For this reason the Indian race has been doomed to pass from the face of the earth, like the game which they hunted and the forests through which they roamed.

This is natural, and it is right that this vast territory

should be made the homes of thousands of industrious, law-abiding people. It has been said that territory large enough to support a thousand Indians by hunting will furnish homes for hundreds of thousands of white men, and doubtless this is true.

CHAPTER IX.

The First Laws of Indiana—A Territorial Legislature Organized— Vincennes.

You will remember that when Governor St. Clair left the County of the Illinois to go to Fort Washington to consult General Harmar concerning the wisdom of sending an expedition against the Indians, he left the affairs of the Territory in the hands of the Territorial Secretary, Winthrop Sargent, who acted as Governor during his absence. Under instructions from Governor St. Clair, he went to Vincennes and laid out the County of Knox, organized the militia, and appointed civil and military officers. This was the first county organized in the State of Indiana. It originally embraced about one-third of the State on the west. It has, from time to time, been divided, and out of it thirty of the present counties of Indiana have been organized.

In 1791 Congress gave the Governor of the Territory the power to confirm the titles to land to such persons as had received grants from the French king and the early officers of the Territory, who had actually improved and cultivated the land they held, allowing not more than four hundred acres to any one person.

That summer acting Governor Sargant and the two judges of the Territory, John Cleves Symms and George Turner, published the three first laws of Indiana. One of them was to prevent the selling of intoxicating drinks to the Indians, another was to regulate the sale of liquors to the soldiers and to prevent them from selling their arms, ammunition and clothing; the other law was to suppress gambling.

During the years 1790 to 1792 a number of laws were adopted, and published at Cincinnati, for the government of the entire Territory. The majority of these laws related to the establishment of courts, punishment of crime, and provided for the appointment of officers. One of these laws directed that a court house, jail, pillory, stocks and whipping-post should be built in every county; another declared that "persons assisting in the escape of prisoners should be punished by fine, imprisonment, whipping, by the pillory, or sitting on the gallows with a rope around his or her neck." What strange old laws these were, and how barbarous they would seem if practiced now; but those were rough times on the frontier, and many rough and lawless people had come to the new Territory who could only be governed by stern laws, suited to their rugged surroundings. As the country developed the character of the people changed, and it became necessary to change the laws which governed them, and, while we still have jails and prisons, we never hear of pillory and whipping-post.

For some time the United States had been having trouble with Spain, concerning the navigation of the Mississippi River. You will remember that France had secretly ceded to Spain all her territory west of the Mississippi, before the

Northwestern Territory was ceded to Great Britain. The Spaniards not only claimed this territory, but denied that the Mississippi River was the boundary line between the United States and the Spanish possessions, and claimed the right to control its navigation, and forbade the Americans from passing down the river with their merchandise.

This was a serious matter to the settlers and traders of the Northwestern Territory. They must have a market for their produce, and the Mississippi River was the natural outlet of the Ohio Valley. In those early days, before the time of railroads, when even the best wagon roads were but openings through the forests, it was practically impossible to transport produce across the country to the markets east of the Alleghany Mountains. With the navigation of the Mississippi denied them, the settlers were shut off from the markets of the world.

This and other national questions came near plunging the country into war with Spain and France, but it was wisely averted, and a treaty of peace was finally concluded on March 3, 1796. By this agreement, the boundary line was fixed at the Mississippi River and navigation again opened, but not until an attempt had been made to separate the territory northwest of the Ohio from the United States and either unite it with Spain or form a separate government.

At this time the British troops had been withdrawn from all the territory belonging to the United States; George Washington was President, and the new country was rapidly settling into a permanent and well-defined government.

In the year 1800, by a secret treaty with Napoleon Bonaparte, Spain restored to France the territory called Louisi-

ana. This territory included all the land from the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, and from the Gulf of Mexico to British America. Three years later Napoleon sold and ceded Louisiana to the United States for the sum of \$15,000,000. The following year a portion of Louisiana was attached to the Northwestern Territory, but was soon afterward formed into a separate territory.

On June 26, 1796, William Henry Harrison was appointed Secretary of the Territory, to fill the vacancy caused by the resignation of Winthrop Sargent, who was appointed Governor of the Territory of Mississippi. From the time Arthur St. Clair was appointed Governor the laws which were to govern the people of the Territory were made by the Territorial Governor and judges, but the time had now come when the people themselves were to have a voice in making the laws which were to govern them.

Governor St. Clair ordered an election to be held by the "qualified voters" of the Territory, for the purpose of electing Representatives to a General Assembly, which he ordered to meet at Cincinnati, January 22, 1799. According to this order, elections were held in the different counties in the Territory. As yet, Knox was the only county organized within the present State of Indiana; indeed, no other counties were organized until 1802.

The Representatives chosen at this election met at the time and place designated by the Governor. The first act of this assembly was to select ten men, a list of whose names was sent to the President of the United States, from which to choose a Legislative Council. John Adams was then President, and from this list he selected Jacob Burnet, James Findlay, Henry Vanderburgh, Robert Olliver and

David Vance to be the first Legislative Council of the Northwestern Territory. These names were sent to Congress with President Adams's recommendation, and were confirmed by the United States Senate March 3, 1799.

After submitting the names selected to the President, the representatives adjourned to meet again in September. The two houses of the Territorial Legislature were organized on the 24th of that month. The council selected by the President formed the highest branch of the Legislature and corresponded to the Senate of to-day. Henry Vanderburgh was elected President of the first Legislative Council, and William C. Schenk Secretary.

On the 25th of September Governor St. Clair delivered his first address to the Territorial Legislature. After calling attention to various important subjects, he told the representatives that it was necessary for the lives and morals of the present and future generations that they should enact wise and just laws. Standing before that little body of twenty-four men, selected to make the laws which were to govern the people of the Territory out of which great States were to be formed, he looked into the future and saw that the happiness of millions of people depended upon their wisdom and integrity, and he pledged them his own aid and support in every good undertaking.

The organization of the Territorial Legislature entitled the people to a delegate to Congress, and at this session the names of William Henry Harrison and Arthur St. Clair, a son of the Governor, were proposed as candidates. An election was held, at which Harrison received eleven votes and St. Clair ten. By this small majority William Henry Harrison became the first delegate to Congress from the Northwestern Territory.

This session of the Legislature continued until December 19th, and during the time thirty-seven acts were passed. Some of them were to regulate the courts and the practice of attorneys, to regulate inclosures, to fix the legal interest on money, to establish taxes and regulate the fees and salaries of officers and representatives. Some were to prevent trespass, to create offices for Territorial government, to prevent the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians, and to prevent the firing of woods and prairies. Others were to relieve poor persons imprisoned for debt, to provide for the punishment of crime, to prevent vice, to regulate public roads and highways, and to encourage the killing of wolves.

The last seems a curious law, looked at from a distance of a hundred years, but then the country was still a wilderness, infested by wild animals of every description native to the country. Wolves were one great pest; not only did they endanger human life, but they destroyed stock as well. To rid the country of them, the government paid a sum of money for the scalp of every wolf killed.

And now the territory northwest of the Ohio was approaching the time when another change was to take place in its government. On the 7th day of May, 1800, the President of the United States (Mr. Adams) approved an act of Congress to divide the Territory into two separate governments.

It is well to pause here and look at the condition of the country and the people before this change is made. At that time there was no Indiana. The country which we now proudly call by that name was still a part of the great Northwestern Territory, which was one division of the United States. The few small settlements made by the French and

Canadians on the Wabash River and at Fort Wayne still existed, but we have seen that they had a pretty hard time to live after the trade was broken off between them and the British on the north and the Indians on the Wabash and the Ohio Rivers.

But now the British had retired to their own territory and peace had been secured with the Indians. Thousands of immigrants had come into the new Territory after the treaty at Greenville, but the little settlements they formed, the few acres they cleared, scarcely made a beginning in the great wilderness of forests and prairies which made up the Northwestern Territory.

At the final treaty with the Indians at Greenville, Ohio, in 1795, the boundary lines which were then established gave the Indians all the territory lying within the present limits of the State of Indiana, except a tract of land six miles square, where the city of Fort Wayne now stands; another two miles square, lying about eight miles west of Fort Wayne; a tract of land six miles square at Ouiatanon, on the Wabash, southwest of LaFayette; one hundred and fifty thousand acres near the Ohio Falls, called the "Illinois" or "Clark's Grant;" the town of Vincennes and the land near it, to which the Indian titles had been extinguished, and a strip of land in the southeastern part of the State, out of which the present counties of Switzerland, Ohio, Dearborn, and a part of Franklin, Union, Wayne, Randolph and Jay were formed. All the rest of the State of Indiana belonged to the Indians and was occupied by them.

Within these tracts settlers built their cabins, cleared a few acres of ground, planted their grain and gathered their crops. In every direction from their little farms stretched

miles and miles of forests, still inhabited by the red men and infested by wild animals—wolves, panthers, bears, wild-cats and deer—while in the western part of the State great herds of buffalo were to be found, and the dark forests were filled with birds, insects and reptiles.

After this treaty of peace, trade was again opened between the settlers and the Indians, and carried on by merchants and traders at Fort Wayne, Vincennes and other small trading points on the Wabash and other streams. The rivers were the roadways of the country, and for many years took the place of the railroads and highways of the present time. Their navigation has since been greatly impaired by cutting the timber from the land and by under-drainage, which has taken the moisture from the ground and dried up the springs and many of the smaller streams.

The business of the country was very different from that of to-day. The merchants would build log houses, which they called trading-posts; here they would bring such goods as the Indians and settlers wanted, and trade them—not for money—there was very little of that to be had—but for the furs and skins of wild animals. The skins were dried, compressed and made into secure packs, weighing about one hundred pounds. After the merchant, or trader, had collected as many as he could manage, he placed them in boats, or pirogues, that would carry about fifty of these packs, and shipped them to some large town, either on the lakes or down the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers.

Detroit was an important shipping point, and much of this kind of merchandise was sent there from this territory. It took four men to manage one of these boats, and when the streams were in good condition they could travel fifteen

or twenty miles in a day, moving against the current. These men would ascend the Wabash River and the Little Wabash to the "portage;" here the boats were unloaded, and the men would carry the packs across the portage to the headwaters of the Maumee River, where they were again placed in pirogues, or keel-boats, and taken to Detroit. Here the furs and skins were exchanged for blankets, guns, knives, powder, bullets, and not unfrequently for intoxicating liquors and such other articles as the settlers and Indians wished. With his new supply of merchandise the trader returned to his post and resumed business.

On December 15, 1796, General Anthony Wayne died, and General James Wilkinson was given command of the northwestern troops. A small force was stationed at Fort Wayne and another at Vincennes, which was then called Fort Knox. This force was in command of Captain Thomas Pasteur. Two years later the command was given to Captain Robert Buntin. In the year 1795 a few families settled in Dearborn County, where the town of Lawrenceburg now stands, and another settlement was formed in Clark County, on the Ohio River.

So closely is Vincennes connected with the history of Indiana that it is interesting to study the condition of the town and its inhabitants at the beginning of the nineteenth century.

A noted historian who visited Vincennes in the summer of 1796 stated that at that time there were about fifty houses built about the old fort. Each house was surrounded by a fence built of poles, and inside of many of these inclosures were gardens in which peach and apple trees grew, and a variety of vegetables were cultivated. Fields of corn,

wheat, barley, tobacco and cotton grew outside the village. Near the river was an inclosure surrounded by wide, sharp stakes, six feet high, and this was again surrounded by a deep ditch eight feet wide. This was called the fort.

The society of the little community was a mixture of civil and military character. The white people were French, the remainder were Indians. They lived in peace with each other, and many of the French married Indians and adopted some of their manners and customs. The people were kind and neighborly and hospitable to strangers, but they were indolent and without enterprise; they were as idle as the Indians themselves.

The men roamed through the forests, or glided down the streams in their canoes, fishing and hunting a little, but they laid up no provisions for the winter, or for a "rainy day." The women were as idle as the men. They were a happy, careless people, and gave no thought to the future. Few of them could either read or write; they had no knowledge of arithmetic, and had no use for books, but read their lessons from their great book of nature, whose pages are always open to those who seek her truths.

There were no courts in this little community. The commandant at the fort was attorney, judge and jury, and his decisions were final. When a party complained that his neighbor had done him a wrong, the commandant notified the offender that he must make amends for injustice done his neighbor. If he did not do so, he was summoned to answer to the complaint. If he failed to appear, an officer was sent to bring him, and he was fined and kept in prison until he was willing to do justice to his adversary.

The priests exercised the same power over the spiritual

affairs of the people that the commandant did over the temporal. From these powers there was no appeal. None was desired. The people were contented and happy to live their care-free lives. Why should they trouble themselves about government, and such trifling matters? It was easy to procure the necessities of life, and they knew nothing of luxuries. A shot from the rifle brought down game for their dinners. The streams were full of fish. They raised a little corn and fruit and a few vegetables; with these, and the wild honey they found in the forest, they lived like kings. Much of their clothing was made from the skins of animals; the remainder they bought from the traders. They had no use for money. The skins of animals were their standard of value. An article was worth—not so many dollars and cents, but so many pelts.

And so these careless people lived their happy, idle lives, with no knowledge of the events that were taking place in the world outside their own little community. They did not hear the tread of the steady foot of progress that was soon to wake up their little colony and make it, even against their will, to take its place in the advancement and government of a great State.

CHAPTER X.

Indiana Territory Formed—General Harrison Governor—Second Grade Government.

In May, 1800, the Congress of the United States made a law dividing the Northwestern Territory into two separate governments, by drawing a line from the mouth of the

Great Miami River below Cincinnati to Fort Recovery, and thence north to Canada. The portion of the country west of this line, which included the present States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin and a part of Minnesota, was organized under the name of Indiana Territory, and the seat of government, or capital, was fixed at Vincennes. On the 13th of May, William Henry Harrison was appointed Governor of the Territory, and the next day John Gibson was appointed Secretary. Afterward William Clark, Henry Vanderburgh and John Griffin were appointed Territorial Judges.

At this time the Territory of Indiana contained but three counties—Knox, Wayne and St. Clair—with a population of about five thousand. Wayne County included the entire State of Michigan, St. Clair County the State of Illinois and all the territory lying west and north of it, while Knox County included the organized portion of the present State of Indiana.

In July Secretary Gibson went to Vincennes to make appointments of officers and to provide for enforcing the laws. Governor Harrison did not arrive until January 10, 1801. He at once called a meeting of the judges of Indiana Territory for the purpose of adopting such laws as were needed for its government; for you must remember that as yet the people had no voice in making the laws which were to govern them, and that the Governor and judges not only made the laws, but the Governor appointed the officers to enforce them.

They met on January 12th, and continued to meet from day to day until the 26th of the same month, and during the time adopted and published seven laws and three reso-

lutions. They then adjourned, and on March 3d the Territorial Judges opened the first general court of Indiana at Vincennes, and the first grand jury of Indiana was formed.

From this time until the year 1810 the attention of the people of Indiana Territory was given to the subjects of land speculation, the adjustment of land titles, the question of negro slavery, the organization of a Territorial Legislature, the right of suffrage, the division of Indiana Territory, the acts of the Shawnee chief, Tecumseh, and his brother, the Prophet, and the movements of Aaron Burr.

Perhaps it would be well at this time to explain briefly the plans of Burr, which, had they proven successful, would have completely changed the history of our State and had far-reaching effects upon the government of the United States. In the great contest for President of the United States in 1801, Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr received an equal number of votes, and the question of who should be President was decided by a vote of Congress. Through the influence of Alexander Hamilton, Burr was defeated; Jefferson was elected President and Burr Vice-President. Determining to be revenged on Hamilton, Burr challenged him to a duel. Hamilton tried to avoid the challenge, but could not, and when they met he refused to fire and was shot and killed by his enemy. The people were very indignant against Burr and he fled the country. His revenge was not complete, however, so he formed the treasonable plan to raise a large military force, invade Mexico, conquer the Spaniards who possessed the country, and induce the Southern States and the Western Territory to quit the Union and join him in forming a separate government, he himself to become Governor of the new empire.

Burr's efforts to perfect this plan created excitement all over the country. He was arrested and tried for treason, but the charges against him were not proven and he was set at liberty. He left the country for a time, but returned in a few years and died in New York a very old and a very poor man.

Does it not seem strange that slavery ever existed in Indiana? It is difficult to realize that in any part of our State human beings were ever held in bondage; yet some of the settlers at Vincennes were slave-owners, and for more than sixty years their right to own slaves was not questioned. During the time the French were in possession of the country, while it was still called Louisiana, the French king, Louis XV, authorized the settlers to bring slaves into the province.

When Virginia ceded the Territory to the United States, Congress passed an ordinance, or special law, for the government of the Territory. This ordinance, which passed July 13, 1787, was one of the most remarkable ever made by Congress; indeed, few laws have been so important or so far-reaching in effect. Among other things, it declared that slavery should never exist in the Northwestern Territory. This law was not strictly enforced, however, and the slaves still remained the property of their masters. Some of them contracted with their owners to remain with them for a number of years, after which they should become free; others were removed to the west side of the Mississippi River and to other slave-owning States.

The people of the Territory were divided on the subject of slavery. Many of them were natives of slave-owning States, and were opposed to the ordinance which prohibited

slavery in the Territory, and were in favor of asking Congress to change the law, or at least to suspend it for a time and to allow them to keep their slaves.

The question became of such importance, and the people were so divided in their opinions and feelings upon the subject, that Governor Harrison, who himself favored the slave system, ordered an election to be held in each county for the purpose of choosing delegates to a convention, which he ordered to meet at the capital of the Territory, to consider the wisdom of asking Congress to suspend the ordinance. Twelve delegates were elected and they met at Vincennes, December 20, 1802. Governor Harrison presided over the meeting. A document was prepared asking the Congress of the United States to suspend the sixth article of the ordinance of 1787, as it was called. This was signed by the Governor, the delegates to the convention and a number of the citizens of the Territory; it was then laid before Congress. That body referred it to a committee to decide what action should be taken upon it.

The committee reported that in their opinion the labor of slaves was not needed to promote the growth of civilization in Indiana Territory. So Congress refused to suspend the law, and, although other petitions and resolutions were afterward sent, signed by legislative authority, and by many citizens of Indiana Territory, Congress refused to make any change in the law.

Although the petitions asking that the slavery ordinance be suspended were signed by the Governor and many prominent people in the Territory, there was strong opposition to it, and other petitions asking Congress not to make slavery lawful in Indiana Territory were signed by large numbers

of citizens and also sent to Congress. The subject was a very important one and claimed the attention of all classes of people, who discussed it on all occasions. Although Governor Harrison favored slavery, he was not willing to see the law violated, and when he learned that a number of colored people were about to be removed from the Territory and sold as slaves, he interfered and called upon the authorities to prevent their removal and sale.

The question of organizing a General Assembly, or Legislature, was at this time much discussed by the settlers. Since the Indiana Territory had been organized the Governor, Secretary and judges had made the laws and managed the affairs of the Territory. The people became dissatisfied that so much power should be given to a few persons and so little to the citizens themselves, and so much was said about it that on September 11, 1804, a vote was taken to ascertain the wishes of a majority of the residents. The result of this vote showed that the majority of the land-owners, or "free-holders," as they were called, was in favor of organizing a Territorial Legislature, to which the people could elect representatives to assist in making the laws which were to govern their conduct.

Upon this, Governor Harrison declared that Indiana Territory had reached that number in population which entitled the inhabitants to what is called a "second grade government," and he ordered an election to be held on January 3, 1805, for the purpose of choosing the members of a House of Representatives, and called a meeting of the elected members for the first of February, at Vincennes, to take steps to organize a Territorial legislative council.

According to the laws which govern territories, the leg-

islative council, which corresponds to our State Senate, must be appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate of the United States; but the representatives elected by the people of the Territory were given the right to nominate, or select, a number of men from whom the President should make the appointments.

On January 11th the United States Congress enacted a law to divide Indiana Territory, for the purpose of forming the Territory of Michigan, and the following June Michigan was separated from Indiana.

The members elected to the Territorial House of Representatives met at Vincennes, February 7, 1805, and selected by ballot the names of ten residents of the Territory, which were sent to President Jefferson. From this list he was expected to choose the members of the Legislative Council, but Mr. Jefferson, being unacquainted with the men whose names were sent, returned the list to Governor Harrison with the authority to appoint the council. This Mr. Harrison did, although it was then believed that the President made the appointments.

The first meeting of the representatives was for the purpose of selecting a Legislative Council, or Senate, as we would now say; no other business could be transacted until this was done. On July 9, 1805, the council and representatives met at Vincennes, and the first Indiana Legislature was organized.

On the 13th Governor Harrison delivered his first message to the General Assembly. In this he recommended the passage of laws to prevent the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians, to regulate or establish a better system of courts for the administration of justice, to improve the militia, laws

for the punishment of crime, and to provide means for raising revenue.

Having entered upon the second grade of government, the people of Indiana Territory were entitled to a delegate to Congress, and the Legislature elected Benjamin Parke to this position. Although this delegate was entitled to a seat in Congress and could take part in discussions and debates, he had no vote in the proceedings of that body, but he could present the needs of the people of his Territory and was able to represent their interests.

Before the Territorial Legislature was organized, the Governor and other officers of the Territory were appointed by the President, with the consent of the Senate of the United States, but now the people had the right to elect their representatives to the Legislature, and the laws were made by these representatives and the Legislative Council. Both the Governor and Council were appointed by the President. This form of government continued in Indiana for seven years.

When William Henry Harrison was made Governor of Indiana Territory, he was instructed by the United States Government to use his efforts to promote peace and harmony among the Indian tribes, and if possible, to persuade them to abandon their manner of living, and to engage in farming and other civilized occupations. He was also authorized to purchase as much land of them as he could, and to extinguish their titles to the same. This Governor Harrison attempted to do. He held a number of councils with the different Indian tribes, at Vincennes, Fort Wayne and other places, and succeeded in procuring from them about 29,719,530 acres of land.

The first lands ceded to the United States by the Indians lay in the southern part of the State, along the Ohio River; the next purchases lay north of these; so, step by step, the savages were pushed northward, as their lands became the property of the government. At the close of the year 1805, the United States had procured from these tribes about forty-six thousand square miles of territory.

Although the people of Indiana Territory voted for the second grade government, it was found, like many other things, to have its disadvantages; in order to sustain the new government, and meet the necessary expense of holding a general assembly, paying officers' salaries, etc., it was necessary to tax the people. This caused much dissatisfaction, especially among the French settlers who had lived for many years free from taxes of any kind, and could see no use in beginning a custom so disagreeable. They especially objected to the poll tax, and held a meeting at Vincennes, at which they resolved that they would in no way support the men who favored the second grade government.

Many of the old laws which had been adopted by Governor St. Clair and the judges of the Northwestern Territory, and some of those adopted by Governor Harrison and the judges of Indiana Territory, were revised and re-enacted by the Territorial Legislature. One of these laws made the crimes of murder, treason, horse-stealing and arson, each punishable by death. Burglary and robbery were punished by whipping, fine, and in some cases imprisonment. Forgery was punishable by fine, disfranchisement, and standing in the pillory. Stealing was punished by fine, whipping, and in certain cases by being bound to labor for a certain time; hog-stealing, by fine and whipping; gambling

and profane swearing and Sabbath-breaking, by fine; bigamy, by fine, whipping, and disfranchisement.

About the year 1806, it began to be felt that the Territory of Indiana was too large to be maintained under a single government. The people were so widely separated, and travel was so difficult and dangerous and expensive, that it was hard for those who must travel long distances to attend court, either as witnesses or interested parties, while the great extent of country prevented the laws being enforced in places remote from the seat of government.

There was much discussion on this subject, and petitions and memorials were sent to Congress asking that Indiana Territory be divided. So, on the first day of March, 1809, a law was made dividing the Territory from north to south, by a line drawn from Vincennes to Canada, and by the Wabash River to the Ohio. All that country lying west of that line and river, was called Illinois Territory, and that portion east remained Indiana Territory. The population of the Territory the year before this division, was about 28,000; of these, 11,000 lived west of the Wabash. It is probable that about 20,000 people remained in Indiana Territory after it was divided.

After the Territory was divided, it was found that there was some irregularity in the number of representatives to the Legislature in the several counties. So, the two houses of the general assembly requested the Governor to dissolve the Legislature, and an election was held to select a delegate to Congress, at which Jonathan Jennings, who afterwards became the first Governor of the State of Indiana, was chosen. At this time there were but four organized counties in the Territory—Knox, Harrison, Clark and Dearborn, in which but nine hundred and thirty votes were cast.

The Governor having dissolved the Legislature, it became necessary to elect new members, and an election was held for this purpose. The next Legislature met November 12, 1810. In his first message to this Legislature, Governor Harrison strongly recommended that a system of popular education be established, and called attention to the dangerous influence of the Shawnee warrior Tecumseh, and his brother, the Prophet. He outlined his views on the Indian question in the following language, which also gives us an idea of the condition of the country at that time: "Although much has been done to extinguish the Indian titles in the Territory, much still remains to be done. We have not yet sufficient space to form a tolerable State. The eastern settlements are separated from the west by a considerable extent of Indian lands, and the most fertile tracts that are in our territorial bounds are still their property. Almost entirely divested of the game from which they had drawn their subsistence, it has become of little use to them, and it was the intention of the government to substitute, for the precarious and scanty supplies which the chase affords, the more certain support which is derived from agriculture, and the rearing of domestic animals. By the considerate and sensible among them, this plan is considered as the only one which will save them from utter extirpation. But a most formidable opposition has been raised to it by the warriors, who will never agree to abandon their old habits, until driven to it by absolute necessity. As long as a deer is to be found in the forests, they will continue to hunt. It has, therefore, been supposed that confining them to narrow limits, was the only means of producing this highly desirable change, and averting the destruction which seems to

impend over them. Are, then, those extinguishments of native titles which are at once so beneficial to the Indians, the Territory and the United States, to be suspended on account of a few individuals? Is one of the fairest portions of the globe to remain in a state of nature, the haunt of a few wretched savages, when it seems destined by the Creator to give support to a larger population, and to be the seat of civilization, of science and the true religion?"

Governor Harrison urged this Legislature to establish a school system, and advised that a military branch be added to it; that the boys and young men of the Territory be taught military evolutions and tactics. At this time, the population of Indiana Territory had increased to 24,520.

CHAPTER XI.

Tecumseh and the Prophet—Battle of Tippecanoe.

The affairs of the new Territory of Indiana ran along in this way, gradually shaping themselves into a permanent and well-defined government, and the inhabitants were gradually adapting themselves to the new order of things—building their cabins, clearing the ground for their farms and gardens, cultivating their fields, and conducting their trades, and with few exceptions, quite at peace with the Indians, until the year 1805.

About this time the Indians complained to Governor Harrison that the white settlers were not keeping their part of the agreement between the Indians and the United States, but were encroaching upon the land belonging to



CHIEF WOLF ROBE (CHEYENNE).

them; that they invaded their hunting grounds, and with little or no provocation, killed their people. They also complained that the white men were not punished for offenses committed against the savages, while the Indians received the full penalty of the law. In an address delivered before the Territorial Legislature, Governor Harrison referred to these charges, and said, "I am sorry to say that their complaints are far from groundless," and he urged the members of that assembly to lose no opportunity to encourage the "impartial administration of justice."

Early in the year 1805, a Shawnee warrior named Tecumseh lived with his brother, Law-le-was-i-kaw, or, "Loud Voice," in a Delaware village which stood on the west side of White River in Delaware county. Tecumseh was very ambitious; he hated the whites, and allowed his ambition and his hatred to control every other feeling.

About this time his brother, Law-le-was-i-kaw, concluded it would be a fine thing to assume the character of a prophet. So he took the name of Pems-quat-a-wa, which in the Shawnee language means the "Open Door;" and he began to preach to the Indians who were about him against witchcraft, and the use of intoxicating liquors, or "fire water," as the Indians called it, and against the habits and dress of the white people, against the practice of selling lands to the United States, against the custom of Indian women marrying white men—all very good subjects for the Indians to consider if he had stopped there; but he claimed that the Great Spirit had told him that those who practiced witchcraft and magic should be put to death, and that the power had been given him to discover such persons and expose them.

He also claimed the power to cure disease, and to prevent death in sickness or in war. In short, he so excited the superstition and credulity of the Indians, that many of them believed in him, and one poor old Delaware chief, Tate-e-bock-o-she, who was at peace with the Americans, and who had influenced his tribe to treat with them, was accused of witchcraft, was tried, condemned and tomahawked, and his body burned at an Indian village which stood on the site of Yorktown, in Delaware county. Tate-e-bock-o-she's wife and nephew and another old Indian named Joshua, were also accused of witchcraft and condemned to die, but while in the council house, the brother of the woman suddenly appeared, and, taking her by the hand, led her away. The two men were burned at the stake.

Law-le-was-i-kaw was so determined to maintain the character of a prophet, that he accused those who opposed him of being witches, and had them put to death. One old woman thus accused, was slowly roasted over a fire for four days before she was allowed to die. He succeeded in convincing some of the Indians of his power, by declaring that on a certain day and hour he would bring darkness upon the earth. In some way he had learned that an eclipse of the sun would occur at that time, and he craftily used his knowledge to play upon the superstition of the savages. When the eclipse actually took place, he triumphantly exclaimed, "Did I not prophesy truly?"

When Governor Harrison heard of these things, he wrote a speech to the Indians and sent it to the Delaware towns, warning them against the Prophet, and advising them to listen no more to his speeches about witchcraft, but to demand proof of his being the messenger of the Great Spirit.

After this, the Prophet removed to Greenville, Ohio, accompanied by his brother, Tecumseh, and a small band of Indians. He remained in that vicinity until the spring of 1808, and succeeded in collecting a number of followers. The Indian agent at Greenville became suspicious of him, and the settlers in the vicinity were alarmed by his actions and lived in fear of him and his band. They were greatly relieved when he left Greenville and removed to the Wabash, near the mouth of Tippecanoe River. Here he settled with his little band of about 140 Indians, and built a village, which was called "The Prophet's Town."

While Law-le-was-i-kaw was winning fame and influence as a prophet among the Indians, his brother, Tecumseh, had not been idle. He formed the daring plan of uniting all the Indian tribes of the west and south into one great confederacy, for the purpose of resisting the Americans and preventing them from extending their settlements over the land belonging to them. He claimed that the treaties between the United States and the Indians were not fairly made, and that no tribe had the right to sell the land without the consent of all the other tribes.

Early in 1808, Governor Harrison prepared a speech which he sent by John Conner, an agent of Indian affairs, to the chiefs and head men of the Shawnee tribes. In this speech he said: "My children, this business must be stopped. I will no longer suffer it. You have called a number of men from the most distant tribes, to listen to a fool, who speaks not the words of the Great Spirit, but those of the devil and the British agents. My children, your conduct has much alarmed the white settlers near you; they desire that you send those people away, and if they wish to

have the impostor with them, they can carry him. Let him go to the lakes; he can hear the British more distinctly."

The Prophet was present when this speech was read, and sent a reply to the Governor by Mr. Conner, in which he said: "Father, I am sorry that you listen to the advice of bad birds. You have accused me of having corresponded with the British, and with calling and sending for the Indians from the most distant parts of the country, to listen to a 'fool' that speaks not the words of the Great Spirit, but the words of the devil. Father, those things I deny and say they are not true. I never had a word with the British and I never sent for any Indians; they came themselves to listen and hear the words of the Great Spirit."

Late in June of the same year, the Prophet sent a message to Governor Harrison assuring him that the Indians who had settled in the Prophet's Town wished to live in peace with the white people. The Indian who brought this message, in a conversation with the Governor, said: "I have listened to the words of the Prophet for upwards of three years, and have never heard him give any but good advice. He tells us that we must pray to the Great Spirit who made the world and everything in it, for our use. He tells us that no man can make the trees, the plants and the animals, but that they must be made by the Great Spirit, to whom we ought to pray and obey in all things. He tells us not to lie, to steal, nor to drink whisky; not to go to war, but to live in peace with all mankind. He tells us also to work and make corn."

In August the Prophet himself came to Vincennes, and had an interview with Governor Harrison, and he talked so fairly, and so earnestly, that he succeeded in making the

Governor think that perhaps his intentions and those of Tecumseh were not so bad as he had supposed, and that the reports he had received of their conduct had been exaggerated, and that the Prophet's teachings were calculated to improve the moral condition of the savages; but scarcely had the Prophet returned to his home than he received such reports of the conduct of the Indians at the Prophet's Town, as convinced him that he had been deceived by the smooth speeches of the Prophet, and that both he and his brother were very dangerous persons, indeed; that they were not only forming a confederacy among the Indians, but that they received encouragement from the British agents in the north, and that in case of war between America and Great Britain, the Indians would become the friends of the British.

The following summer, the Prophet and about fifty of his followers again visited Vincennes, and held several interviews with the Governor. He denied any intention of organizing the Indians for the purpose of attacking any of the frontier settlements, and said that he had declined an invitation from the British to engage in war against the United States, and that he had persuaded some of the tribes to cease their hostilities toward the Americans. But the Governor was not convinced of the Prophet's good intentions, and regarded him as having a very bad influence over the other Indians. He continued his efforts to secure by treaty as much Indian land as possible lying within the Indiana Territory.

Tecumseh and the Prophet tried to prevent the Indians from selling their land, and threatened to prevent that already ceded from being surveyed. The settlers became

greatly alarmed by the movements of the brothers and their band, and the stories told of their conduct and their threats, prevented emigrants from forming other settlements in Indiana.

During the summer of 1810, the savages became very troublesome, stealing, plundering and in many ways annoying the settlers. The Governor sent frequent messages to the Prophet's Town, and to the villages of the Miamis, Delawares and Pottawattomies, by Francis Vigo and other influential citizens of Vincennes, and assured them that the friendship and protection of the United States should be given them, and warned them that Tecumseh and the Prophet were dangerous leaders, and would surely bring them into trouble if they followed them.

It is probable that at this time the Prophet's followers numbered about six hundred and fifty restless warriors. Through the influence of a number of Delawares who were friendly to the Americans, others were prevented from joining the Prophet and his band. The Indians at the Prophet's Town became more bold and offensive; they treated with rudeness the boatmen who were sent to deliver the annual supply of salt which the government furnished them; the Governor's messengers were accused of being spies, and threatened with death, although no actual violence was done them.

In August, 1810, Tecumseh visited Vincennes. Although he had been requested to bring but few Indians with him, he was attended by four hundred warriors. They came down the Wabash in eighty canoes—all painted in a frightful manner and fully armed with tomahawks and war-clubs. The citizens of Vincennes were alarmed by the ap-

proach of so many warlike savages, and the Governor and officials were annoyed that Tecumseh should bring so many Indians with him, for, as they were the guests of the town, food must be provided for them, and they must otherwise be entertained. The Indians camped near the town, and arrangements were made for holding a council with Tecumseh at the house of the Governor on the morning of the 15th.

At the appointed hour the Governor, with the territorial judges, some officers of the army, a sergeant and twelve men from Fort Knox (three miles above Vincennes) and a large number of citizens, awaited the coming of Tecumseh and his warriors, in the porch of the Governor's house, which had been furnished with seats for the occasion.

Tecumseh approached within a short distance of the house and paused. He was a remarkably fine looking man, and doubtless looked very imposing in his war-paint and feathers. An interpreter was sent to invite him and his warriors to seats on the porch, but he declined the invitation, saying that it was not a suitable place, and pointing to a grove a short distance away, requested that the council be held there. The Governor replied that there were no seats in the grove; but Tecumseh answered that that was no objection—the earth was the proper seat for Indians. So the chairs and benches were removed to the grove, the Indians seating themselves upon the ground.

Tecumseh opened the meeting by relating the wrongs of the Indians. His manner was haughty, and his speech was bold. He declared that the Americans had driven the Indians from the sea coast and would soon push them into the

lakes. He accused the whites of having killed some of the Indians and taking from them their lands. He declared that the land was sold, and the price received for it by a few Indians who had no right to dispose of it without the consent of all the tribes. He insisted that the Indians had been defrauded, and demanded that the land be restored to them. He said that it was not his intention to make war upon the United States, but that he was determined to resist further intrusion of the whites upon Indian lands.

When he had finished, his speech was interpreted to the Governor, who replied to it and took his seat; and the interpreter began to translate his speech to the Indians. Tecumseh listened for a while, and then, springing to his feet, began to speak in a defiant and violent manner. The Governor was surprised, but, not understanding the language, supposed he was making some explanation. Just then his attention was attracted by Winnemac, a friendly Indian, who, lying on the grass before him, was loading his pistol, holding it so that the Governor could see it, but keeping it hid from the other Indians.

While watching Winnemac, the Governor heard his secretary, General Gibson, say to an officer, "Those fellows mean mischief; you had better bring up the guard." At the same moment the Indians seized their tomahawks and war-clubs and sprang to their feet, keeping their eyes upon the Governor, who arose from his chair and drew a small sword which hung at his side. Captain Floyd, who stood near him, also drew a dirk, and Winnemac cocked his pistol.

It was a critical and dramatic situation. The citizens were in numbers greater than the Indians, but they were unarmed. They hastily provided themselves with stones,

and such other weapons as they could procure. Mr. Winans, a minister of the gospel, who was present, ran to the Governor's house, snatched up a gun and stationed himself at the door to defend the family.

Not a word was spoken during this scene, until the guard came running up and was in the act of firing, when the Governor ordered them to stop. He then demanded to know the meaning of this strange occurrence. The interpreter replied that Tecumseh had interrupted him while he was explaining the Governor's speech, by declaring that everything he said was false.

Turning to Tecumseh, the Governor told him that he was a very bad man—that he would put out the council fires, and have nothing more to do with him. The Indians returned to their camp and were carefully watched that night; the militia was re-enforced, and preparations were made for an attack, but none was made.

The next morning, Tecumseh requested an interview with the Governor, that he might explain his actions of the day before, claiming that he had no intention of attacking him. The request was granted, and at the meeting Tecumseh was dignified and respectful. He insisted that his claim to the land ceded to the Americans was a just one; that a purchase could not be made without the consent of all the tribes, and repeated his determination to resist further settlements or surveys of the land.

The Governor promised to state the claims of the Indians to the President of the United States, but gave it as his opinion that the government would not restore the land it had fairly purchased of the tribes who occupied it, and that the rights of the United States would be protected by the sword if it should become necessary.

The following day Governor Harrison went to Tecumseh's camp with only an interpreter to accompany him. He was politely received, and held a long interview with Tecumseh, but with no better results. He again promised to make known to the President the views of the warrior, but told him that it was not probable that his terms would be agreed to. Tecumseh replied: "Well, as the great chief is to determine the matter, I hope the Great Spirit will put sense enough into his head to induce him to give up this land. It is true he is so far off that he will not be injured by the war; he may sit in his town and drink his wine, whilst you and I will have to fight it out."

At the close of this interview Governor Harrison suggested that in case there should actually be war between the United States and the Indians, he should use his influence to induce the savages to abandon their cruel treatment of women, children and prisoners. Tecumseh, who possessed some excellent traits of character, had from his youth been opposed to this savage cruelty, and agreed to this proposal.

Soon after this, a small force of United States troops were sent from Newport, Kentucky, to Vincennes, under command of Captain Cross, for the purpose of building a fort on the Wabash. They were to be assisted in this by the Militia Infantry and the Knox County Dragoons, but for some reason, the fort was not built until the following year.

The trouble caused by Tecumseh and the Prophet grew worse and worse. The Indians became more mischievous and aggressive. They were encouraged by the British agents in Canada, who believed that war was about to be declared between the United States and Great Britain, and tried to win the friendship of the northwestern tribes and

cause trouble between them and the Americans. The Indians destroyed the property of the whites, frightened a party of surveyors from their work, and a quantity of salt sent by the government to other tribes was seized by the Indians at the Prophet's Town.

The settlers became desperate and a party of white men killed an Indian, and wounded two others. The Governor continued his efforts to break up the confederacy at the Prophet's Town, and sent speeches to the leaders, warning them that the Indians were seeking their own destruction, and that their conduct could no longer be tolerated. He began preparations for building a fort on the Wabash for the protection of the settlers.

One day in July, 1811, great excitement and alarm was caused among the residents of Vincennes by the arrival of about three hundred Indian warriors and twenty or thirty women and children. It was Tecumseh and his army come to interview the Governor. He was met by Captain Wilson, before he reached the town, and told that the Governor was displeased with him for bringing so many Indians with him. Tecumseh replied that he only brought twenty-four men; that the others came of their own accord.

Governor Harrison made preparation for them by reviewing the militia, and stationing companies on the borders of the town. If the Indians intended to make an attack, they changed their minds upon seeing the strength of the troops, which were composed of about seven hundred and fifty men, and Tecumseh assured the Governor that he had no intention of making war upon the Americans, and promised that the settlers should not be further molested by the Indians. He did not remain long at Vincennes, but, taking about twenty warriors with him, journeyed southward.

The people were so alarmed by the movements of the savages, that they held a public meeting at Vincennes, and prepared resolutions declaring that the inhabitants of Indiana Territory were exposed to great danger from the Indians at the Prophet's Town, and requesting the President of the United States to order them to disperse, or to take steps to cause them to leave that locality.

A few days before this, however, President Madison had instructed the Secretary of War to authorize Governor Harrison to call out the militia of the Territory, and in case it should become necessary, or advisable, to attack the Prophet and his followers, and if needed, to call into service certain United States troops. At the same time, the President urged that peaceful relations be preserved with the Indians, so long as the safety of the settlers and the rights of the government of the United States would allow.

Governor Harrison believed that the time had come when the hostile band at the Prophet's Town should be broken up, and he ordered a military expedition to move up the Wabash River and erect a fort. When the troops were about ready to move, a party of Indians from the Prophet's Town arrived, and made strong professions of peace and friendship. The army started, however, on September 26, 1811, and camped above the old Wea village where the city of Terre Haute now stands.

There is an old Indian tradition that at this place a desperate battle was once fought between the Illinois Indians and the Iroquois confederacy. On account of this, the early French settlers called it "Bataille des Illinois." Here Governor Harrison put the troops to building a fort, which, when completed, was named Fort Harrison. While the

men were at work on the fort, some friendly tribes of Delawares and Miamis told them that the Prophet had sent a war speech to some of the Delaware chiefs, and declared that the "tomahawk was up against the whites," and would not be taken down until the wrongs of the Indians had been made right. They also said that some of the Delaware chiefs had tried to persuade the Prophet to abandon his purpose, but he would not listen to them.

While the troops were camped here, a sentinel was wounded by a small party of Shawnees, who were prowling about. Soldiers were at once sent against them, but they made their escape. The Governor sent four Miami Indians with a message to certain men who were at the Prophet's Town, to return to their own tribes. He also sent a message to the Prophet demanding that he return to their owners the stolen horses in his possession, and that he deliver up the murderers of white settlers, whom he was protecting. The Indians never returned, and no attention was given to the message.

Fort Harrison was finished on October 28th, and Lieutenant-Colonel Miller, with a small force of men, was left to guard it, while the remainder of the troops moved on toward the Prophet's Town. On the last day of the month, they crossed the Wabash River near the present town of Montezuma, in Parke county, and three days later they encamped on the western bank of the river, two miles below the Big Vermillion River, and built a block-house a mile below their camping place. They stationed an officer and eight men to guard this point, and to protect the boats which were used to bring supplies to the soldiers.

The next day the army continued its march. The force

amounted to about 910 men, and consisted of 250 regular troops under Colonel Boyd, about 60 volunteers from Kentucky, and 600 citizens of Indiana Territory. About 270 men were on horse-back, the remainder were on foot.

On the 6th of November they came in sight of the Prophet's Town. All that day parties of Indians had been seen prowling about. Several times the interpreters had tried to talk with them, but they would say nothing. When about a mile and a half from the town, the army halted, and Governor Harrison sent the captain of the guides and spies, with an interpreter, to request an interview with the Prophet. They started on this errand, and tried to talk with several Indians, but they made no reply, and seemed to be trying to cut them off from the main army.

The officers seeing this, and fearing for their safety, ordered them to return, and the entire army, "in order of battle," marched toward the town. The interpreters were placed in front, to request a conference with the Prophet. They had not gone far when they were met by three Indians, who requested to speak with Governor Harrison. One of them, who was a man of influence with the Prophet, expressed surprise that the Americans should so soon advance upon them, as they had been informed by messengers that the Governor would wait until he received a reply to his demands, and that the answer had been sent two days before, but that the messengers had taken the opposite road from that of the army, which had taken the western side of the Wabash River.

Governor Harrison replied that he would not attack the town until he had an answer from the Indians; that he would go into camp and have an interview with the Prophet

and his chiefs the next morning. They continued their march and were soon met by a party of fifty or sixty Indians, who commanded them to halt. Advancing to the front, Governor Harrison halted the army and sent an interpreter to request the chief men to come to him.

The same men came who had met him before. They were told by the Governor that he was seeking for a place to camp, where he could have good water, etc. The Indians directed him to a location which they said would doubtless please him. Two officers were sent to examine the spot, who reported the situation to be excellent. He then took leave of the Indians, each promising that hostilities should not begin until a council was held the next day.

The spot selected for a camping place was not well chosen. It was a high piece of ground covered with trees, with marshy prairies both in front and rear, through which ran small streams whose banks were thickly lined with willows and other brushwood.

That night the troops were kept in military position, which is called "lying on their arms;" that is, they slept with their clothes on and with fixed bayonets, and encamped in "order of battle," so that each corps formed the outer line of the camp, and was instructed to hold the ground in case there should be an attack. The regular troops lay in their tents with their arms at their sides. The militia had no tents, and slept with their guns under them to keep them dry.

Although the army was placed at the very best advantage, and the officers knew the treacherous character of the savages, it seems that they did not expect an attack before morning. The night was dark and cloudy, and it rained

after midnight. At four o'clock the Governor arose and prepared to call up the troops. He was drawing on his boots by the fire, and talking to some officers; a few minutes longer and the entire army would have been awake. Just at this moment, the left of the army was so suddenly attacked that the savages were in the camp before many of the men could get out of their tents.

The whole army was on its feet in an instant; the camp-fires were extinguished; the Governor mounted his horse and rode to the front of the attack. So quickly did they act, that in a few minutes the entire army was ready for battle. The Indians gave their terrible war-whoop and came on, making terrific noises—rattling the hoofs of deer and yelling at the top of their voices. The battle was furious, and lasted until daylight, when a strong charge was made by the American troops, which drove the Indians into the swamps, and ended the fight.

The Americans conducted themselves with remarkable bravery. Many of them had never been in battle before, but it was said that they "behaved like veterans," while the officers won distinction by their bravery and valor. The result of the battle was the complete defeat of the Indians, and the breaking up of the Prophet's Town and of the Indian settlements on the Wabash. The influence of the Prophet over the Indians was completely destroyed, and the designs of Tecumseh were defeated.

The loss to the Americans was 37 killed in battle and 151 wounded, 25 of whom afterward died of their wounds. A number of officers were killed or mortally wounded. A ball passed through the stock worn by the Governor, slightly burning his neck, another struck his saddle and, glancing,

hit his thigh, while a third wounded his horse. The exact number of Indians engaged in this battle and the loss in killed and wounded, has never been known. The reports given of the number in battle vary from 350 to 1,000; the number was probably between 800 and 1,000.

During the battle, the Prophet stood on a high piece of ground and encouraged his warriors by singing a war song, and telling them that the victory would surely be theirs, for the bullets of the enemy could not harm them; and when he was told that some of the Indians had been killed, he replied that the warriors must fight on, and they would soon be victorious.

The Indians whom the Prophet had gathered about him, lost faith in him after this battle. They called him a liar, and some of them bound him and threatened to put him to death; and almost all of them returned to their tribes, and the impostor was left alone. His town was completely destroyed, and he went with a small band of Wyandottes to the banks of Wild Cat Creek, northeast of LaFayette, in Tippecanoe County.

The battle of Tippecanoe, as it was called, took place while Tecumseh was in the south, whither he had gone to try to persuade the southern tribes to join him against the whites. It is said that when he returned he was very angry with his brother, the Prophet, for attacking the Americans, for by this defeat of the Indians, he lost all hope of forming a confederacy of the northwestern tribes.

The battle of Tippecanoe occurred November 7, 1811. Having completely routed the savages, the American troops remained long enough to bury the dead and care for the wounded, and then started on their return journey, reach-

ing Fort Harrison the 14th, having been absent but little more than two weeks. Here the wounded were placed in boats and sent to Vincennes, and the army continued its march, leaving a company of regulars, under Captain Smelling, in charge of the fort. They reached Vincennes November 18th.

So ended the memorable battle of Tippecanoe, and so were destroyed the deep-laid plans of Tecumseh and the Prophet. Tecumseh joined the British in Canada and fought against the Americans in the war of 1812, and was killed at the battle of the Thames, in 1813.

CHAPTER XII.

The War of 1812—Suffering of the Settlers.

It was with feelings of great relief that the settlers in Indiana Territory learned the result of the campaign against Tecumseh and the Prophet. They were not allowed to enjoy their security very long, however, for early the following year it became known that some of the Indian tribes were not disposed to remain at peace with the Americans any longer, and in April, there was great alarm throughout the Territory, caused by the report that several white people had been killed by the Indians in the vicinity of the Wabash. Governor Harrison at once ordered the militia force to prepare for active service; block-houses and picketed forts were built in all the principal settlements that were in any way exposed to danger.

At this time, the United States was at war with Great

Britain concerning American commerce, and the right of "impressment;" and the British agents in Canada who sought the friendship and assistance of the Indians, were the cause of many of these outbreaks. Some of the tribes were the friends of the United States, but large numbers became the allies of the British.

Early in January, 1812, the Miami chief, Little Turtle, sent a message to Governor Harrison, assuring him that in case of war between the Americans and British, that the Miami and Eel River tribes would continue the friends of the Americans.

When it became known to the Indians that there would indeed be war, they held a great council, at which the most of the northwestern tribes were represented. The majority of these tribes were in favor of remaining at peace with the United States. Tecumseh, who was present, was not satisfied with the proceedings of the council, nor with the peaceful intentions shown by the Indians, and soon after joined the British forces in Canada.

England and France were at war with each other. For the purpose of injuring her enemy, England interfered with the trade between France and other nations. Napoleon, who was emperor of France, in order to get even, interfered with England's trade with other nations. They surrounded each other's ports with war vessels to prevent foreign ships from going in or coming out.

In May, 1806, England proclaimed that the entire coast of France was blockaded. The American seamen did not know this, for there were no telegraphic cables, as there are now, and many vessels belonging to them were captured as prizes by the English. In fact, the harbors of France were

not blockaded at all; they were only declared to be so. Then Bonaparte declared that the English ports were blockaded, and the American merchantmen were seized by the French.

Then the English prohibited the French coasting trade, and the French prohibited the English coasting trade; and so they went on quarreling with each other, and all the while the Americans were the greatest sufferers. If her ships sailed to or from any British port, they were liable to be captured by the French; if they sailed to or from any other than British ports, they were sure to be made the prizes of the English.

But Great Britain did not stop at this. Under the claim that anyone born in England remains a British subject for life, English cruisers were authorized to search American vessels, and to "impress" into the British navy all persons "suspected" of being subjects of Great Britain.

Now, as a matter of truth, many Englishmen had immigrated to this country and become citizens of the United States. Some of these were seamen, and it was easy to "suspect" native Americans for English subjects, and many Americans, as well as Englishmen, were captured and compelled and serve the enemies of their country.

An American frigate named the "Chesapeake" sailed out of the Chesapeake Bay, and was hailed by the "Leopard," a British man-of-war, who demanded to search the Chesapeake for deserters. This the commander of the Chesapeake refused to allow, and the Leopard fired upon the ship and compelled her to surrender. Four men were suspected and taken from the captured vessel. Three of them were Americans; the fourth was an actual deserter, and was tried and hanged.

The British government professed to disapprove of this outrage, and promised to make amends, but it never fulfilled the promise. This was more than the Americans could bear, and Thomas Jefferson, then President of the United States, issued a proclamation forbidding English war ships to enter the United States harbors; but still England made no amends for her insults. Then Congress passed a law detaining all American vessels in the United States ports, hoping that by cutting off all trade with France and England, they might compel them to recognize American rights. This was called the "Embargo Act."

Then England issued an order prohibiting all trade with France, and Napoleon, determining to keep even, forbade all commerce with England. So between these two nations, American commerce was completely ruined. Then came a change of Presidents. James Madison succeeded Jefferson in 1809. The act prohibiting ships from leaving the United States harbors was repealed, and American ships were allowed to sail for other ports, but were forbidden to trade with England. Napoleon then authorized his seamen to capture all American vessels approaching France, but soon recalled the order. England, however, continued her hostilities, and ships still hovered around American ports to enforce her orders. This was the condition of affairs when Tecumseh and the Prophet were causing so much trouble in Indiana Territory.

More than six thousand American citizens had already been captured and impressed into the British navy, and it was no longer to be hoped that war could be avoided. So, on June 4, 1812, the United States declared war against Great Britain. It at once became necessary to protect the

northwestern frontier from the attacks of the Indians, many of whom, as we have seen, were the allies of the British; so a large force of men was raised and placed under the command of General William Hull, of Michigan Territory, who was authorized to invade and conquer Canada, if circumstances were favorable to such a course.

He began his march toward Detroit on June 1st. Reaching the Maumee River, he placed his stores and official papers in a boat, and sent them to Detroit, while his army continued its hard march through two hundred miles of forest. He reached Detroit early in July, where the discouraging news awaited him that his boats had been captured and all his supplies and papers were in the hands of the enemy. He crossed the river to capture Malden, but learning that the American fort at Mackinaw had been captured by the British, he returned to Detroit.

General Brock, who was Governor of Upper Canada, was in charge of the British forces at Malden. Here he was joined by Tecumseh, and on August 16th, with their forces of 1,300 British and Indians, they together crossed the river and advanced upon Detroit, which General Hull still held with a force of over 2,300 men.

The American troops were ready for battle, but when the British were within a few hundred yards, General Hull hoisted the white flag, and the entire force became prisoners, and the Territory of Michigan was surrendered to the British. This act of General Hull was considered cowardly, and the entire country felt disgraced and humiliated. Hull was brought before a court-martial, charged with cowardice and treason, and was sentenced to be shot, but was afterward pardoned by President Madison on the ground that he had served his country well in the war of the Revolution.

Just before the surrender of Detroit, the Indians were giving trouble to the settlers in the territory about Fort Dearborn, at the present site of Chicago. Learning that an attack was soon to be made on the fort itself, Captain Wells, of Fort Wayne, in company with a party of friendly Miami Indians, went to warn the troops of their danger, and escort them from the fort. They reached Fort Dearborn August 13th, and the garrison offered to surrender the fort to the Indians on condition that they be allowed to retire unmolested. The Indians agreed to this, but after the soldiers had gone about a mile and a half from the fort, they treacherously attacked them, killed twenty-six of the regular troops, all of the militia, murdered two women and twelve children, and took twenty-eight prisoners. Captain Wells and about fifteen Indians were among the killed. These victories of the British, combined with other reasons, caused other Indian tribes to take up arms against the Americans, and war parties were sent to attack the settlements in Indiana Territory.

Soon after receiving official notice of the war between the United States and Great Britain, Governor Harrison went to Kentucky for the purpose of procuring volunteers to assist in defending the settlers in Indiana and Illinois Territories. Kentucky being on the east side of the Ohio River, and outside the territory claimed by the Indians, was free from the invasion of the savages, but she generously responded to the call to help her suffering neighbors, and freely offered her sons for the defense of the State of Ohio and the Territories of Indiana, Illinois and Michigan.

In September, large parties of Indians began to gather at Fort Wayne, and the same month a party of warriors tried

to capture Fort Harrison. Other bands invaded the country as far southeast as Clark and Jefferson Counties. Two men who were working in a field near Fort Harrison were killed and scalped, and the next night a body of several hundred Indians attacked the fort and set fire to one of the block-houses. Captain Zachary Taylor, who afterward became President of the United States, was in command of the fort. The most of his men were ill, or were recovering from illness, and not more than fifteen of them were able for service, but they resisted the attack as best they could.

It was a terrible situation, and it required great bravery to face it. The burning block-house joined the barracks, and when the men saw the bursting flames they gave themselves up for lost. To make the situation more trying, a number of woman and children had taken refuge in the fort, and their cries, mingled with the raging of the flames and the yelling of the savages, made a scene most terrible. Nothing but the bravery and presence of mind of Captain Taylor saved them. Under his direction the fire was extinguished and temporary breastworks raised where the burned building had stood, and they were enabled to hold the fort until morning when the Indians withdrew. As soon as was possible, a force was sent after them, but they made their escape.

That same month a party of soldiers who were escorting prisoners from Vincennes to Fort Harrison, were attacked at a place called "The Narrows" in Sullivan County. The prisoners were captured by the Indians and seven of the soldiers were killed or wounded.

Some time previous to this, a few families had formed a settlement in what is now Scott County. This was called

"The Pigeon Roost Settlement," and was separated from the nearest settlement by five or six miles. One day two men were in the woods hunting about two miles from the settlement, when they were attacked and killed by Indians; about sunset, the same party attacked Pigeon Roost Settlement, and within an hour killed one man, five women and sixteen children. They then set fire to the cabins, burning some of the bodies in the flames which destroyed their homes. One woman, two men and five children escaped.

The massacre caused great excitement and alarm among the settlers. A company of militia from Clark County was sent to the scene of the tragedy, who buried the remains of the unfortunate victims, and the next day about 150 mounted riflemen followed the trail of the Indians, but did not overtake them.

After this the settlers on the frontiers of Clark, Jefferson, Harrison and Knox counties lived in a constant state of dread and alarm until the close of the war in 1815.

To protect themselves against the attacks of the Indians, the people in almost every settlement built a fort, or stockade, where they could gather for mutual protection and safety. These stockades, or forts, were made of split timber, twelve or fourteen feet long, planted firmly in the ground, standing close together, and inclosing as much space as needed. They were entered by large gates made of hewn timber from three to six inches thick, so that bullets could not penetrate them. Inside these inclosures, small cabins were built for the families, and usually a block-house was built for further protection.

The block-houses were built of logs and made very strong. They were two stories high, the upper story pro-

jecting two or more feet over the lower. There were port-holes made in the floor of the projection, so that the men could see and shoot the Indians if they got inside the stockade and near the block-house. There were also port-holes in the walls of each story, through which they could shoot if the Indians should attack from either side. When the settlers dared leave the fort, they worked together, first on the land of one, then another; a part of them watching as sentinels, to guard the others while they worked.

Mr. Zebulum Collins, who lived six miles from Pigeon Roost Settlement, speaking of those times of suspense and danger, said: "The manner in which I used to work was as follows: on all occasions I carried my rifle, tomahawk and butcher knife, with a loaded pistol in my belt; when I went to plough I laid my gun on the ploughed ground, and stuck up a stick by it, so that I could get it quick in case it was wanted. I had two good dogs; I took one into the house, leaving the other out. The one outside was expected to give the alarm, which would cause the one inside to bark, by which I would be wakened, having my arms always loaded. I kept my horse in a stable close to the house, having a port-hole, so that I could shoot to the stable door. During two years I never went from home with any certainty of returning, not knowing the minute I would receive a ball from an unknown hand; but in the midst of all these dangers, that God who never sleeps or slumbers has kept me."

Those who have never been in real danger can have but little idea of the fear and anxiety which the fathers and mothers suffered during those pioneer days. We who close our eyes at night with a perfect faith that nothing will disturb our slumbers until morning cannot appreciate the feel-

ings of those who never laid down to rest without the fear that before the dawn they might be awakened by the flames of their burning homes, or the cries of their murdered children. To the suffering of those brave pioneer men and women we owe the peace and prosperity we now enjoy. They paved the way in which our feet now tread.

During the year 1813 the Indians did not attack the garrisoned forts and block-houses in Indiana, but the unprotected settlements were often visited by small bands, and a number of people were killed. Several expeditions were made to the Delaware towns, on the White and the Mississinewa rivers. It was very difficult for the mounted troops to travel through the country on account of the density of the forest, fallen trees, and swollen rivers; but at last the Indians were overpowered and the settlers allowed to live in peace.

Governor Harrison, who had been appointed Major-General of the Kentucky militia, and had commanded all the troops raised in that State for the defense of the north-western frontier, arrived at Fort Wayne September 12th, 1812, with about 2,700 men. At the approach of the army, the Indians who had gathered in this vicinity, and had infested the fort, burned a few houses and retired. Detachments of troops were sent after them for several miles over the country about Fort Wayne, but no Indians were to be found. The soldiers, however, destroyed a number of their deserted villages and cornfields.

There were at this time about 2,000 mounted volunteers at Vincennes, under command of General Samuel Hopkins. Expeditions were also sent from this point and a number of fields and villages were destroyed. Early the follow-

ing year General Harrison resigned his command at Fort Wayne, to receive the appointment under the President of the United States of commander of the army of the Northwest, and General James Winchester was placed in command of the troops at Fort Wayne.

When General Harrison assumed command of the Northwestern Army, he was instructed by the Secretary of War to "provide for the safety of the whole northern frontier, and to retake Detroit with a view to the conquest of Upper Canada, and to penetrate that country as far as possible."

You will notice that the first duty given him was to protect the frontier settlements from the attacks of the Indians, and his first effort was to collect a large force of soldiers and establish a large supply of provisions and military stores at the rapids of the Maumee River. But he found this no easy task. Roads must be opened through the pathless forests and swamps before the artillery wagons containing the supplies could be moved, and forts must be built, and stores of provisions established at suitable places through the country. Winter was drawing near and the men were in need of clothing, blankets, arms and ammunition; as the cold weather came on they suffered very greatly, and so many of them died from sickness and exposure, and so many others were ill, that the army was reduced from 10,000 to less than 6,000 men able for duty.

The Miami Indians at first declared that they would take no part in the war, but it was not in Indian nature to remain long neutral when others were fighting, and some of the tribes assisted in besieging Fort Wayne and attacking Fort Harrison, and one or two of them took part in the Pigeon Roost massacre, and they refused to be present at a

council which the Americans called at Piqua, Ohio, all of which went to show that they were friendly to the British. The reason of this may have been that they believed that Great Britain would conquer in this war; for the Indians were very apt to take sides with the strongest party, and paid but little attention to the right or wrong of a dispute.

To stop the hostile acts of these Indians, a force of about 600 men was sent against them; several of their villages which stood on the Mississinewa River in Miami County, were destroyed, a number of warriors were killed, and forty-two prisoners taken.

The Delaware tribes, whose villages in Indiana were on White River, took no part in this war. By the advice of the Americans, they abandoned their towns and moved to Ohio, soon after the battle of Mississinewa, accompanied by a small band of Miamis, where they placed themselves under the protection of the United States. The Prophet, with the principal chiefs of the Miamis and their miserable and destitute band, joined the British at Detroit.

At the approach of General Harrison and his force of men, in September, 1813, the British surrendered Detroit, and at Malden, where the battle of the Thames occurred October 5th, the Americans, led by General Harrison and General Shelby (then Governor of Kentucky), won a complete victory over the British.

At this battle Tecumseh was killed, the Indian confederacy destroyed and Michigan regained. The Indian tribes in the vicinity of Detroit, finding themselves deserted by the British, began to sue for peace with the United States, and the settlers were for a time left in safety.

There is but little more to tell about the Indians. On

October 3, 1818, a treaty was made at St. Mary's, Ohio, between the United States and the Delaware Indians. By this treaty the Indians sold to the United States all their lands in Central Indiana, south and west of the Miami Reservation and south and east of the Wabash River. The United States agreed to pay the Indians \$4,000 annually, and to provide permanent homes for them west of the Mississippi River; the Indians, however, were given the right to retain the land for three years. According to this agreement, in the spring of 1821, the Indians in Central Indiana left for their western homes.

The final removal of the Indian tribes occupying the Miami Reservation, or the country north of the Wabash, was effected by General John Tipton in 1838. In 1823, General Tipton was appointed agent for the Pottawattomie and Miami tribes in Northern Indiana, and was instrumental in securing from them valuable lands for public settlement.

In the spring of 1825, a crime of dreadful cruelty was committed against some Indians near Pendleton, in Madison County, Indiana—a crime of such grave importance that the National Government interfered with the criminals. The eastern portion of the State was thinly settled and abounded in game, and a peaceful band of Seneca Indians, who lived on a reservation in Ohio, came into the State to hunt and trap. Two Indian men named Ludlow and Mingo, who belonged to this band, with three women and four children, camped not far from Pendleton during the winter, and collected a valuable stock of furs.

One day they were all seated around their camp-fire, when five white men—Thomas Harper, Andrew Sawyer,

James Hudson, John Bridges and his son, John Bridges, Jr., came to them and told them that they were hunting for stray horses, and asked them to help find them. The Indians suspected no harm and readily consented. They divided into two companies and started through the forest, the Indians leading the way. They had not gone far when Harper, who was walking behind Ludlow, shot and killed him. Hudson, hearing the report of the gun, fired and killed Mingo. The murderers then returned to the camp and shot the women and children and robbed the camp. Harper escaped and was never heard of, but it was believed that the other Indians in the vicinity killed him. The other four men were arrested, heavily ironed and put in a log cabin at Pendleton, where they were guarded day and night.

The other Indians who were hunting in that region, and the Miamis who lived in the Wabash country, were very angry and excited, and the settlers who lived along White River were greatly alarmed lest there should be an attack made upon them.

John Johnson, of Ohio, was agent for the Senecas; William Conner, who lived near Noblesville, in Hamilton County, was agent for the Miamis. As soon as these men heard of the crime they went to the scene of the murder and managed to quiet the Indians by promising that the guilty men should be punished. They at once sent an account of the murder to the authorities at Washington, and a special term of court was held to try them. James Noble, the United States Senator from Indiana, led in the prosecution of the case, assisted by Calvin Fletcher, Philip Sweetser and Samuel Mason. The prisoners were defended by Charles H. Test, James Rariden, Martin M. Ray, William B. Morris and Lot Bloomfield.

Although the court was held in a rude log cabin, it was conducted with grave dignity and formality. The jurymen were rough backwoods pioneers, dressed in homespun or buck-skin trousers and hunting-shirts, slouched hats and coarse brogans, but their demeanor was serious and dignified, and they listened with patient gravity from day to day to the bloody story as each case came up for trial, and gave the closest attention to the arguments on both sides. As each case was ended they brought in the verdict of "guilty." The younger Bridges was but sixteen years old, and on account of his youth and his testimony, which convicted the others, they recommended him to the mercy of the Governor.

The trial was attended by many citizens and Indians, and the feeling was very bitter against the murderers. They were all sentenced to be hanged, and the three older men were executed. Young Bridges was pardoned by Governor James B. Ray while on the scaffold. The hanging, which was public, took place near the roadside at the foot of the hill, a few yards east of the railroad bridge at Pendleton. The people for miles around were present, and a number of Indians also witnessed the execution and expressed themselves as being satisfied with the result of the trial. This is the only instance recorded in this country in which white men were hanged for killing Indians.



THE OLD STATE HOUSE AT CORYDON.

CHAPTER XIII.

Capital Removed to Corydon—Steps Toward Statehood.

The war was concluded December 14, 1814, and peace restored between the United States and Great Britain. Now, let us see what Indiana had been doing all this time. We know how the settlers had suffered from the attacks of the Indians, and how the power of the savages had finally been broken and the tribes compelled to sue for peace.

The Territorial Legislature did not meet during the first year of the war. Governor Harrison was away commanding the Army of the Northwest, and General Gibson, Secretary of the Territory, was performing the duties of the Governor. He called a meeting of the General Assembly for February 1, 1813.

This session of the Legislature enacted thirty-two laws, the most important of which were for the purpose of improving the navigation of White River, organizing counties and locating county seats, fixing the time for holding courts in the Territory, opening and improving roads and highways, fixing the rate of taxes to be paid on land and other property, including slaves.

This Legislature also passed a law to change the capital of the Territory from Vincennes to Corydon, in Harrison County, which was to take effect on the first day of May, 1813. This change was made because Corydon was at that time near the center of population, and it was easier for most of the people to reach than was Vincennes.

The State House which was built at Corydon for the use

of the Legislature and the State officers, was completed in 1815. It was built of stone taken from the hills in that vicinity, and is forty feet square and two stories high. The lower story was used for the House of Representatives and the upper for the Legislative Council. The old State House is still standing, and is carefully preserved by the people of Harrison County.

Although the people of Indiana Territory had the right to elect their Representatives to the Legislature by a majority vote of the "free-holders," or land-owners, of the Territory, the President of the United States held the power to appoint the Territorial Governors, Secretaries, judges of the Supreme Court and the Legislative Council.

Before the Territorial Legislature was organized, the Governor and judges of the Territory adopted such laws of the original States as they believed to be suited to the needs and circumstances of the people, but, at the same time. Congress had the power to disapprove any law adopted, after which it could not be enforced.

The privilege of holding office and voting for Territorial Legislators was not given to every citizen of suitable age, but certain "property qualifications" were required. Each member of the Legislative Council was required to own a "free-hold estate" of five hundred acres of land; every member of the House of Representatives must own "in his own right" two hundred acres of land, and only those citizens had the privilege of voting who, in addition to other requirements, owned at least fifty acres of land.

The Governor appointed all the officers of the militia, judges and clerks of the lower courts of the Territory, justices of the peace, sheriffs, coroners, county treasurers, and

surveyors. He also had the power to divide the Territory into districts, apportion the members of the House of Representatives among the several counties, prevent the passage of any law, and call sessions of the Legislature or dismiss that body whenever he chose to do so.

The citizens of the Territory were not satisfied with the limited power they possessed, although they did not complain that either of the Governors had been unjust or tyrannical; but they were unwilling that such unlimited authority should be given to one man, and they made frequent appeals to Congress to extend their "right of suffrage."

In 1809 the qualified voters were given the privilege of electing the Territorial delegate to Congress. In 1811 the right to vote for members of the General Assembly and for Territorial delegates to Congress was given to every free white man in the Territory who was twenty-one years of age, had paid county and Territorial tax and had lived in the Territory one year.

In 1814 this privilege was extended to every free white man who was a land-owner, who lived in the Territory and was of the proper age. The same year Congress authorized the Legislature to divide the Territory of Indiana into five districts, and the voters in each district had the privilege of electing a member of the Legislative Council. This division was made at Corydon, in June of the same year. There were then ten counties in the Territory.

In 1813, Thomas Posey, a Senator from the State of Louisiana and an officer in the Revolutionary War, was appointed Governor of Indiana Territory. Governor Posey arrived at Vincennes on the 25th day of May, and entered at once upon his duties. In December, the Legislature met at the

new capital at Corydon. On the 6th day of the month, Governor Posey delivered his first message to that body. He expressed hopeful views concerning the result of the war with England, and called attention to the necessity of improving the militia and court system, and urged the advantage of having good roads and highways in as many directions through the Territory as possible. He also called attention to the appropriation made by Congress, in lands, for the purpose of establishing public schools, and urged the Representatives to make use of the appropriation. We shall have more to say by and by of this act of Congress to provide means for educating the children of Indiana.

The Legislature adjourned in January. It had enacted a number of laws which were intended to improve the condition of the new government. One of these laws was to prevent dueling, and required all members of the Legislature and officers of the Territorial government to take the oath against dueling. This is not required of officers now, because the laws of the country forbid dueling, but in those days it frequently happened that when men quarreled, or felt that they had been wronged in any manner, they would challenge their enemy to fight a duel, and often one or both were killed or injured for life; but this, like many other bad customs, has passed away.

From this time the condition of the settlements began to improve. The settlers lost their fear of the savages, and immigration began to increase. The Indians retired to the lands set apart for their use by the government, and the destitute tribes were furnished with provisions and ammunition to be used in hunting.

In the spring of 1814, three commissioners were ap-

pointed to hold a treaty of peace and friendship with the Indians of the northwest. General William Henry Harrison, General Lewis Cass and Governor Isaac Shelby, of Kentucky, composed the commission. Governor Shelby, however, did not serve.

They called a great council to meet at Greenville, Ohio. The time was fixed for the 20th day of June, but so many representatives of the tribes were absent that the council did not begin until the 8th of July; and after it began, the weather was so bad and so many of the Indians were drunk, and behaved so badly, that the business of the council was not finished until July 22d. It was a large and important gathering, and about four thousand Indians were present. At last a treaty of peace was agreed upon and signed by a number of chiefs from each tribe.

Although the Indians agreed to be at peace with the Americans, small parties from different tribes continued to annoy the settlers for more than a year. The Americans were not entirely guiltless of wrong-doing. An Indian chief and his squaw made a visit to Fort Harrison. They were kindly received by the officers, but while they slept, a ranger fired at them and killed the squaw. The Indians of her tribe were very angry and excited, but the injured chief agreed to take a present to make up for his loss, and this seemed also to satisfy his friends.

And now the time had come when another change was to be made in the government of Indiana. The settlers began to feel that they were entitled to be admitted into the Union of States, and for months the subject of forming a State Constitution had been uppermost in their minds. They had discussed it at their log-rollings, at their house-raising, at

their corn-huskings, and at all their social gatherings and public meetings. They had met at the county seats and talked about it there. When they met each other on the road, going to or from mill, or on any business journey, they drew rein and, sitting upon their horses, discussed the important subject from every standpoint. When friend met friend, when neighbor met neighbor, the all-absorbing question was, "Shall Indiana become a State?"

As early as 1811, the Territorial Legislature adopted a memorial, or petition, asking Congress to authorize the people of Indiana Territory to form a State Constitution. When the General Assembly met at Corydon, in December, 1815, Governor Posey was ill at his home in Jeffersonville and could not be present, but sent his message to be read before the two houses.

The efforts of the members of this Legislature were mainly directed toward changing the Territorial government into that of a State. They, too, adopted a memorial, praying Congress to order an election to be held in the several counties in the Territory for the purpose of choosing delegates to meet in convention, and there to determine, by a majority vote, whether or not they should go into a State government; and that, if the majority of the people desired it, they should be given the power to form a State Constitution, or a frame of government; but if not so determined, they asked that they be given authority to provide for the election of representatives to meet in convention at some future time to form a Constitution. They also expressed the hope that the ordinance against slavery would be continued, for at this time the majority of the people in Indiana were opposed to negro slavery, and wished to keep it out of the Territory.

When Congress passed the ordinance for the government of Indiana Territory, it provided that whenever there should be 60,000 inhabitants in the Territory it should be admitted into the Union. The Legislature authorized that the census of the Territory be taken, and the returns showed **the number had reached *63,897.** So Mr. Jennings, the Territorial delegate to Congress, laid the memorial before that body.

It was placed in the hands of a committee, of which Mr. Jennings was chairman, and who, on January 5, 1816, reported to the House of Representatives of the United States a bill which gave the people of Indiana Territory the authority to form a State Constitution and a State government, and provided for the admission of such a State into the Union, on an equal footing with the original States.

After being changed and amended in some particulars, this bill was passed by Congress, and on April 19, 1816, it was signed by James Madison, President of the United States, and became a law. This law was called an "Enabling Act," because it gave the delegates authority, or enabled them, to form a State Constitution and State government. On the 13th day of the following month an election was held for the purpose of choosing the delegates to the Constitutional Convention, which was called to meet at Corydon.

*The population of Indiana in 1820 was 147,178; in 1830, 343,031; in 1840, 685,800; in 1850, 988,416; in 1860, 1,350,428; in 1870, 1,630,637; in 1880, 1,973,501; in 1890, 2,194,404; in 1900, 2,516,462.

CHAPTER XIV.

Indiana Becomes a State.

In the year 1816 the delegates elected to form a State Constitution and State government met at the Territorial capital. It was the 10th of June; the spring air was sweet with the perfume of flowers, the day was bright with golden sunlight, and the silence of the forest was broken by the song of birds that flitted through the dark green branches of the trees.

There was unusual excitement in the little town of Corydon, nestling among the circling hills of Southern Indiana, for important events were about to take place, and work was to be done which concerned thousands of people yet unborn. Many of the delegates had arrived the day or night before, and had taken lodging in the little hotel,* or tavern, as it was called, of which the town boasted. They had traveled long distances, over almost impassable roads, through forests and low-lands, deep in mud and mire; for even in June the "blazed" trails and bridle-paths were in a condition which made traveling indeed a hardship.

Some of them had arrived at nightfall, others late in the night, weary, worn and splashed with mud, the long leathern leggins, which reached above the knees, being the only protection to their clothing.

Leather pouches, called "saddle-bags," were thrown across their saddles, and contained their extra clothing, papers, books and other necessary things. The saddle-bags

*This hotel was built in 1809, and was constructed out of native limestone. It is situated about a mile east of Corydon, and is still standing.

were an important article in the outfit of a traveler. They consisted of a broad strap of leather, on each end of which was a bag, or large pocket, with a flap, or lid, which could be strapped down, and kept the contents dry and protected them from mud and dust. There were many other strangers in the little city besides the delegates, for everybody was interested in the important work which was to be done, and the tavern and boarding-houses were doing a thriving business.

The bell on the old stone State House rang out the hour appointed for the assembling of the delegates. Many were already in their places, in the lower room, where the convention was held; others came in as the last tones of the bell died away, while a few belated ones arrived after the convention had been called to order.

They were a grave, serious body of men—these fathers of our Constitution—and would be a strange-looking company if assembled in our legislative halls to-day, so greatly have manners and dress changed since Indiana became a State. They were not much given to fashion, except the fashion of the backwoodsmen, and were as rugged and rough in appearance as the country they represented. Many of them were dressed in homespun, hand-woven clothing, made by the pioneer wife and mother without the aid of sewing machine, and cut by rules unknown to the tailors of to-day, for fit and style were a second consideration, warmth and wearing qualities being first. Some of them wore the buck-skin trousers and coon-skin cap of the pioneer, a garb well suited to the exposures they constantly endured, and heavy, high-topped boots covered their feet and lower limbs.

But rough as they may have been in appearance, they

were men of common sense, firm integrity and honest purpose. Some of them became illustrious in the early history of Indiana, and one of them, Frederick Rapp, won world-wide fame by founding the communistic settlement at New Harmony, of which we will speak later, and one became the first Governor of Indiana.

Each member of the convention produced a certificate of his election from the sheriff of his county, showing that he had been elected to serve as delegate to the convention, and took the oath of fidelity to the United States, and an oath to discharge faithfully the duties of the office. They then took their seats upon the plain wooden benches, and the first Constitutional Convention of Indiana was formally opened. Jonathan Jennings was chosen President of the convention; William Hendricks was elected Secretary.

The first business of the convention was to consider and to determine the question as to whether a State government should be formed. The delegates, coming directly from the people, were well informed of their wishes, and voted accordingly. A ballot was taken, which showed that a large majority favored a State Constitution.

This important question being settled, the delegates next proceeded to frame a Constitution for the new State. This occupied their attention until June 29th, at which time the convention closed. The room in which the convention was held was small and very much crowded, and as the weather became warm, seats were arranged out of doors, under the spreading branches of a large elm tree, and many of the sessions were held there. The tree is still standing, and is called the "Constitutional Elm."

Mr. Dillon, in his History of Indiana, says: "The con-

vention that formed the first Constitution of the State of Indiana was composed, mainly, of clear-headed, unpretending men of common sense, whose patriotism was unquestionable, and whose morals were fair. Their familiarity with the theories of the American Independence, their Territorial experience under the provisions of 1787, and their knowledge of the principles of the Constitution of the United States were sufficient, when combined, to lighten materially their labors in the great work of forming a Constitution for a new State.

“In the clearness and conciseness of its style, in the comprehensive and just provisions which it made for the maintenance of civil and religious liberty, in its mandates which were designed to protect the rights of the people, collectively and individually, and to provide for the public welfare, the Constitution which was formed for Indiana in 1816 was not inferior to any of the State Constitutions which were in existence at that time.”

The new Constitution required that the Governor and all other officers should continue to perform the duties of their offices until officers should be elected under authority of the State government. Jonathan Jennings, President of the convention, was authorized to instruct the sheriffs of the counties of Indiana to hold elections for the purpose of electing a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, a Representative to the United States Congress, members of the General Assembly, and sheriffs and coroners of counties.

At this election Jonathan Jennings was chosen Governor of Indiana. He received 5,211 votes, against 3,934 given to Thomas Posey, who was the last Territorial Governor. Christopher Harrison, of Washington County, was elected

Lieutenant-Governor, and William Hendricks was elected Representative to Congress.

The counties organized before Indiana became a State were: Clark, Daviess, Dearborn, Franklin, Gibson, Harrison, Jackson, Jefferson, Jennings, Orange, Perry, Pike, Posey, Sullivan, Switzerland, Warrick, Washington and Wayne. The boundaries of these counties were not the same that they are now; all of them, except, perhaps, Switzerland, have since been divided to form other counties.

On December 11, 1816, James Madison, President of the United States, signed the resolution of Congress which formally admitted Indiana into the sisterhood of States.

The first session of the General Assembly of the State of Indiana was held at Corydon, November 4, 1816. Isaac Blackford was elected Speaker of the House, and John Paul was chosen President of the Senate. The work of this Assembly was greater than that of former Legislatures. The great machinery of the new State was to be put in motion; the settlements were rapidly increasing in size and numbers, and laws must be made to meet their needs.

The Constitution provided that all the State officers except the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor must be elected by the General Assembly, and those elected by this Legislature were: Secretary of State, Robert A. New; Auditor of State, William H. Lilly; Treasurer of State, Daniel S. Lane. James Noble and Waller Taylor were elected to the United States Senate. At this time a land office for the disposal of public lands was located at Brookville, in Franklin County, which was then one of the most important towns in the State.

CHAPTER XV.

State Government—Duties of Officers.

Perhaps it would be well at this time to explain what a State Constitution is, and to tell why it is necessary that States should have Constitutions.

For the government of the people of a country, or a State, or a Territory, there must be laws to regulate their conduct, prevent crime, and secure the personal and property rights of individuals. For all such laws there must be a beginning, or foundation, or starting point; and that is just what a Constitution of a country or a State is--the foundation, or frame, upon which the laws are constructed.

There are two kinds of laws; one made by the people themselves; the other made by men chosen by the people to act for them. To make the first class of laws, the people elect a number of men to meet and prepare a code of laws, plainly written out. The meeting of these men is called a convention, and the written laws they prepare are called a constitution, and are generally submitted directly to the people for their adoption or rejection.

After they have had time to examine thoroughly and discuss the proposed laws, an election is held, and all legal voters vote "for" or "against the Constitution." If the majority of the voters approve, it becomes a law. It is then the Constitution of the State. All future laws must be based upon it. It describes the frame-work of the government. It tells what officers shall be elected, explains how they shall be elected, defines their duties and powers, and defines and declares the rights of the people.

It comes directly from the people, and no Legislature, no body of men however powerful, can alter or change it. It is the people's law, and they alone can change it in a manner described in the Constitution itself. A law which does not harmonize with it is "unconstitutional," and cannot be enforced. To illustrate: The Constitution of Indiana declares that the Governor shall be elected for a term of four years. If the Legislature should make a law declaring that he should be elected for five years, it would be unconstitutional, because it would not agree or harmonize with the Constitution, and it would be of no force.

It would be impossible for the people to vote on all matters, or to make all the laws necessary for their government; so the Constitution provides that they may choose representatives to make laws for them. This is the second kind of law-making. Laws made by representatives elected by the people are called statutes, and they must conform to, or agree with the Constitution. The representatives of the people may change the statutes, but they cannot change the Constitution.

The Constitution and statutes of a State must not conflict, or disagree with the Constitution of the United States, which is the supreme law of the land. All laws must harmonize with it; each must agree with the other, and the whole forms a perfect system of laws.

The Constitution of a State deals only with prominent matters. It establishes principles upon which present and future laws are based, leaving the details to the Legislature. It outlines the government of the State, separates it into different departments, declares what officers shall have charge of each department, and defines the duties of each one of them.

After the Constitution and laws of a State are made, they must be enforced before they are of any use. It becomes necessary, therefore, to select men to enforce, or execute them. The body of officers elected for this purpose constitute an important part of the government. As men they may not be superior to the average citizen, but as representatives of the State they are entitled to that respect and obedience which all owe to the State government. If an officer does not properly conduct himself, he may be removed from office.

In organizing the State, three separate departments, or branches of government, are formed, which, taken together, make what we call a system of government. They are called the Legislative Department, the Executive Department, and the Judicial Department.

The Legislative Department.—The General Assembly, or law-making body, forms the Legislative Department. It is composed of two branches, or houses, called the Senate and the House of Representatives.

The Constitution of Indiana provides that there shall not be more than fifty members of the Senate, called Senators, and not more than one hundred members of the House of Representatives, called Representatives. The Lieutenant-Governor presides over the Senate, while the House of Representatives is presided over by a "Speaker," elected by its members. Both branches elect their clerks and such other officers as are needed.

The Executive Department.—The Governor of the State is at the head of the Executive Department. He is the highest officer in the State, and is elected to serve for a term of four years. It is his duty to see that the laws are exe-

cuted; that peace is maintained, and the rights of individuals protected. All bills passed by the Legislature are sent to him for his signature before they become laws. He has the power to "veto," or refuse to sign, a bill, which prevents it from becoming a law, unless the two branches of the Legislature pass it over his veto, which they may do by the same number of votes in each house that were required for its original passage. (In Congress it requires a two-thirds vote to pass a bill over the President's veto.)

The Governor is Commander-in-Chief of the militia, or State troops, and can call them into service whenever he considers it necessary in order to prevent disorder or to enforce the law. He appoints all officers of the militia and issues all orders for their employment, through the Adjutant-General, whom he also appoints. He has power to pardon criminals, except those guilty of treason or impeachment. He can pardon unconditionally or in part; that is, he can pardon on condition that the criminal conducts himself properly, and can cause him to be returned to prison to serve out his sentence in case he is guilty of improper conduct, or of violating the law.

The Legislature gives the Governor power to make certain appointments, such as trustees of the benevolent and penal institutions and other boards and commissioners. When a vacancy occurs in any State office, the Governor fills it by appointment. This includes judges of the courts and prosecuting attorneys, but not vacancies in the Legislature; he must order an election to fill such vacancies. All persons appointed to fill vacancies continue in office until the next general election. The Governor may call special sessions of the Legislature at any time, and under certain circumstances he may change its place of meeting.

In case the Governor should die or resign his office, the Lieutenant-Governor assumes the duties of Governor, and is called "Acting Governor." The Executive Department is divided to form the Administrative Department. To this the Secretary, Auditor and Treasurer of State and other officers belong.

The Judiciary Department.—The Judiciary Department refers to the courts, which are divided into two general classes, called the Supreme and the Circuit Courts.

The Secretary of State has charge of the great seal of the State, which he affixes to all official papers and documents which require the signature of the Governor. He superintends the printing of laws made by the Legislature, and performs various other duties.

The Auditor of State is keeper and examiner of the public accounts, and money is paid out of the State Treasury only through his orders. He also has charge of the land records of the State. All banking and insurance companies in the State (except National Banks) must report to him, and he may at any time order an examination of the business of such institutions, and may take them into his custody if he has reasons to believe them insolvent.

The State Treasurer keeps the public funds, or the money belonging to the State, and is responsible for its safety. No money can be drawn from the State Treasury for any purpose unless provision has been made for it by law, and the State Treasurer can only pay out money on warrants, or orders, drawn by the Auditor of State in compliance with the law. The Treasurer must publish monthly reports of the different funds in his keeping.

Besides the officers elected under the Constitution, there

are others whose offices are created by law, who are also called State officers; they are the Attorney-General, State Geologist, State Librarian, Superintendent of Public Instruction, Superintendent of Statistics, or Statistician, Clerk of the Supreme Court, and Reporter of Decisions.

The Attorney-General is the State's lawyer. All lawsuits in which the State is interested are conducted by him. He also prosecutes all criminals whose cases are brought before the Supreme Court, and collects certain moneys due the State. He gives his opinion on points of law in which the State is interested. The Governor, Senate and House of Representatives may apply to him for his opinion on all points of law. He is elected every two years, and has his office in the State House.

The State Superintendent of Public Instruction is elected every two years. He has a general supervision over the public schools and educational affairs of the State, and makes an annual report of their condition, to the Governor or General Assembly. His office is also in the State House.

The Clerk of the Supreme Court keeps the records of the Supreme Court. He is elected by the voters of the State for a term of four years.

The Reporter of Decisions publishes the decisions of the Supreme Court.

The State Geologist is an officer skilled in the science of geology—that is, the science which treats of the formation of the earth, the minerals, soil, etc. He has charge of the geological surveys of the State and has supervision over the mines, the sale of petroleum and the use of the natural gas supply. He reports to the Governor each year the discoveries made in the State concerning the soil, minerals and other

substances. His discoveries are often very useful to agriculture, manufactories and the mechanical arts. The State Geologist also has charge of the State Museum, or collection of geological specimens, Indian relics and other curiosities. He is elected for four years, and his office is in the State House.

The State Statistician collects all information concerning agriculture, mining, education, manufacture, commerce and other industries; he also gathers facts concerning life, death and marriage and many other interesting things. The work of this officer is often very valuable. He has an office in the State House and is elected every four years.

The State Librarian has charge of the State Library, and is elected every two years by the State Board of Education. He attends to the purchase of books for the library, which is situated in the State House and consists of several thousand volumes. The Librarian sees that they are properly taken care of and that the rules which govern the library are not violated.

In addition to these officers, laws have been made creating special boards and commissions, each with special work to perform. Among these are the Board of State Charities, the State Board of Education, State Board of Health, State Fish Commission and State Tax Commission.

The Board of State Charities is composed of four members, appointed by the Governor, who himself acts as President, and a secretary elected by the board. The work of this board is in connection with the charities of the State; it has authority to examine all benevolent and penal institutions, jails, reformatories, orphans' homes, poor asylums, etc., and through the secretary of the board makes a report

of the condition of each, the amount of money expended for its support, and is often able to make valuable suggestions concerning their management.

The State Board of Education is composed of the Governor, State Superintendent of Public Instruction, the Presidents of the State University, State Normal School, Purdue University and the Superintendents of the Public Schools in the three largest cities in the State. The Legislature of 1899 added to the board three other members, two of whom shall be County Superintendents of Schools.

The duties of this board are to grant special certificates to teachers, to select the text-books to be used in the public schools and look after the general interests of the educational affairs of the State. This board also elects the State Librarian.

The State Board of Health is composed of five members, four of whom are chosen by the Governor, Secretary and Auditor of State; the fifth member is elected by the four appointed members. The duties of this board are to exercise a general supervision over the health conditions of the State and investigate the causes of disease. It has power to regulate the drainage, heating and ventilation of all public buildings, and has authority to take measures to prevent the spread of contagious diseases.

The Fish Commissioner is appointed by the Governor. He examines the lakes and streams of Indiana to see if they can be made to produce more fish, and to take measures to prevent unnecessary destruction of the fish already in them.

The State Tax Commission is composed of the Governor, Secretary and Auditor of State and two Commissioners appointed by the Governor. The duty of this board is to regulate the taxes of the State, as is elsewhere explained.

For greater convenience in government, the State is divided into counties, each with a seat of local government, called a county seat. Here the court house and county jail are located and all county business transacted. Each county has control of its own affairs, elects its own officers, levies and collects its taxes, and pays a certain amount into the State treasury for the expense of the State government. The officers of a county are: Board of County Commissioners, Sheriff, Auditor, Clerk of the Court, Treasurer and Recorder.

The affairs of a county are directly under the management of a Board of County Commissioners, who meet at stated periods each year. This board has charge of the public buildings of the county; it erects the bridges, constructs the roads, grants certain licenses, and examines all claims against the county. It also has charge of the poor and infirm who have become county charges. This is one of the most important offices in the State, and one which comes nearest to the people's interests. The Commissioners are the agents of the people and are responsible to them for the management of the public affairs.

The Sheriff is the executive officer of the courts and enforces its orders. It is also his duty to suppress riots, etc.

The Auditor examines all bills against the county and issues all orders on the Treasurer for their payment. He is to the county as the State Auditor is to the State.

The Clerk of the Court keeps the court records and issues to the Sheriff all orders from the court. He also issues marriage and other licenses.

The Treasurer keeps all the money belonging to the county and is responsible for its safety. He collects the taxes

and may sell the property of those who refuse to pay their portion of the assessment. On order, or warrant, of the County Auditor, he pays to the State Treasurer the money due the State from the collection of county taxes, and pays such other orders as are properly drawn.

The Recorder keeps a record of all deeds and mortgages made on lands and other property in the county, and keeps a perfect record of titles to land within the county.

A County Superintendent of Public Schools, who is elected by the Township Trustees, has supervision over the public schools of the county.

For further convenience in government, the counties are divided into townships, and a trustee elected in each township, who manages its affairs.

The Township Trustee superintends the construction of roads and bridges in his township, erects the school buildings and keeps them in repair, employs the teachers and looks after the poor in his township. He also inspects the elections held in the precinct in which he lives, and, with the assistance of the Board of County Commissioners, and the approval of the Township Advisory Board, fixes the tax on property in his township for school and road purposes. He is to the township as the Board of Commissioners is to the county.

The Legislature of 1899 created County and Township Advisory Boards, consisting of several men elected by the people. To this board the County Commissioners and Township Trustees must submit estimates of the money needed for expenditures, both in the county and townships. No money can be raised by taxation, nor can it be expended, without the approval of these Advisory Boards.

In every county there is an asylum for the poor, where those who are unable to work and have no means of support are cared for at the public expense.

County Commissioners are elected for a term of three years, Sheriffs and Treasurers for two years, Auditors, Clerks and Recorders for four years. All State and County officers receive a salary for their services.

The first county organized in Indiana was Knox County, in the year 1790; the last was Howard County, in 1846. Knox County embraced a large tract of land in the western part of the State, and out of it about thirty counties have been formed. The territory called the "New Purchase," which lay in the southeastern part of the State, was first divided into Wabash and Delaware Counties. Out of this territory about twenty-seven counties were formed.

Counties were organized by "acts," or laws made by the Legislature. Sometimes the settlers of a certain locality made application to the Legislature for a charter, authorizing them to become a separate and independent county. A paper would be prepared, stating their wishes and signed by all those who desired a new county organization. This was called a petition.

The Legislature receiving such a petition would cause the case to be investigated, and if it seemed best to grant the request, would pass an act, or law, to organize the county. Sometimes the Legislators themselves considered it best for the government of the people to divide certain sections of land into counties, and would make laws to that effect. The boundary lines would be defined, a name chosen for the new county, and commissioners appointed to fix the county seat, or "seat of justice," as it was sometimes called, and a circuit

court established. The Governor appointed a Sheriff, who ordered elections to be held by the "qualified" voters of the county for the purpose of choosing the County Commissioners and other necessary officers. The Sheriff issued certificates of election to the new officers, as was the law.

The counties in Indiana were named by the Legislature, many of them in honor of the statesmen, heroes and scholars of that period. Of the ninety-two counties in the State, more than forty are named for military officers and soldiers; seven are named for Presidents of the United States, three for Indiana Governors and two for Indian tribes.*

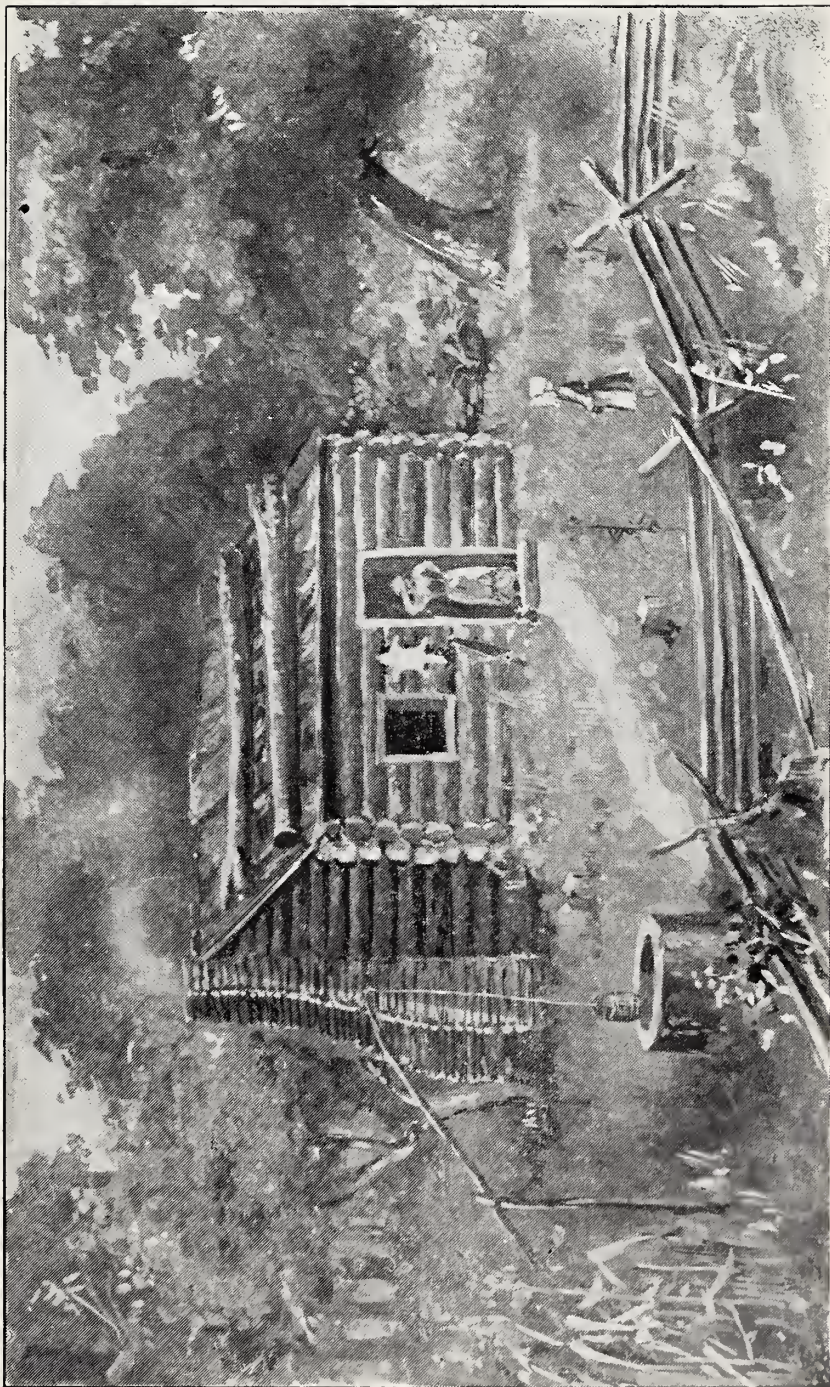
CHAPTER XVI.

Hardships of Pioneer Life.

And now that Indiana has become a State, let us again pause and take a backward glance over the years since the first white men explored the territory.

For years the country was ruled by the king of France, and then by the king of England. It was a part of Louisiana, and then a part of Canada, and through the efforts of George Rogers Clark and a few brave Virginians, it was captured from the hands of the British, and became a part of the State of Virginia. It was afterward ceded to the United States as a part of the great Northwestern Territory, which in time was divided to form the Territory of Indiana; this was again divided to form the Territory of Michigan. It was organized into the Indiana Territory, and again di-

* See Appendix A.



PIONEER'S CABIN.

vided to form the Territory of Illinois; and finally, in the year of our Lord, one thousand eight hundred and sixteen, became, and still remains the State of Indiana.

We have studied the history of our country from the time when the forests were infested with wild, roving tribes of savage men; we have traced their footsteps through gloomy glens, and glided with them down swift, dark streams; we have followed them across wide prairies, and crept behind them as they stealthily tracked the wild game of the wilderness; we have seen their dark faces flush with anger at the approach of the white men, and their tomahawks raised above the heads of men, women and children; we have seen the soil of our fair State stained with the blood of innocent victims, and have heard their shrieks rend the silent air. We have heard the bark of the house-dog in the still night, warning the settlers of the approach of murderous bands, and have seen the dark forests lighted by the flames of burning homes, and whole families and settlements swept away. We have seen the brave Virginia troops plod through the swamps of southern Illinois, to capture the British forts, and place the frontier settlements under the protection of the State of Virginia; we have waded with them through the water-covered lowlands, and with them swam swift, swollen streams; with them we have suffered hunger, cold and exposure, and with them rejoiced to see the "cross of St. George" pulled down, and our own glorious Stars and Stripes float over captured Vincennes. We have seen the British driven from the country and a free government established. We have followed Pontiac, Tecumseh and the Prophet through their wild plans, to final defeat and ruin. We have heard the tread of armed men,

and gone with St. Clair, General Harrison and "Mad Anthony Wayne," and witnessed the result of their expeditions. We have been present at treaties with foreign nations, and at councils with wild tribes of Indians. We have sat in the Territorial Legislature at Vincennes and Corydon, and listened to debates on negro slavery, on Indian warfare and the propriety of State government. We have listened with breathless interest to pioneer statesmen, as they eloquently expressed their common-sense views concerning the laws which should govern the people. We have noted their manner, their clothing, their habits, and have been amazed that amid such rugged surroundings, they could build so sure a foundation for so great a State.

And now we have seen these things pass away. The red men are a vanquished race—a few wretched savages scattered about, and no longer the kings of the forests. The power of the British is broken, the nations from over the sea acknowledge our ability to take care of ourselves, and Indiana is a State.

Would it not be well at this time, to inquire who the men and women were who came to this wild and rugged country to make homes for themselves and to plant civilization where wild lawlessness reigned? Shall we not study their habits, their dress, their manner of living and conducting themselves? Governor Harrison said that this is one of the "fairest portions of the globe." We know it now to be one of the greatest States in the Union; surely the people who came to change the wilderness into a garden, are worthy of our study and attention.

At the time Indiana became a State, there were perhaps not more than 64,000 inhabitants, in straggling settlements,

throughout the southern part of the Territory. They had come from almost every State in the Union, but chiefly from Pennsylvania, Virginia and other Southern States. They were mostly very poor people, but were honest, and as hardy and rugged as the rough country in which they lived.

Some of them emigrated from their old homes in strong wagons drawn by horses or oxen. They placed their families and all their worldly goods in this car of the wilderness, and bidding their friends good-bye, bravely turned to face hardships and danger, sometimes disease and death.

The journey from civilization to the forest home was difficult and dangerous. The Ohio River was the great thoroughfare of many of the immigrants. It was called the "Beautiful River," and it deserved the title. It was then as nature had made it, with nothing to mar its beauty but a few scattering villages. The grand old forests through which it flowed, had not been touched by the woodman's ax, which afterward destroyed them, but down to the brink of its waters grew magnificent trees, tangled vines, and brilliantly colored flowers, which shut out from view everything but the sky, the river and their own grandeur and loveliness.

The emigrant would load his family and goods on a flat-boat, and float with the current to some point where he desired to land. The journey down the Ohio was full of danger. The river was constantly watched by roving bands of Indians, and many an unfortunate family met death along its borders. It has been said that there is scarcely a mile from Pittsburg to the Ohio Falls that has not at some time been the scene of deadly conflict.

After leaving the river, it took days and weeks to reach

the spot which the immigrants were seeking. Roads were unknown, and every foot of the way must be carved out of the forest which stood like a solid wall before them.

It was a wonderful growth of trees that made those grand old forests. Such mighty oaks, broad, spreading beeches, giant ashes, maples and poplars are not found on any continent but ours. The shade was so dense that the noonday sun could scarcely pierce it on the brightest summer days. The trees that had fallen were almost as numerous as those standing, and were in all stages of decay. Some of them had newly fallen; some were sunk half their depth in the soft, damp soil; some were lying side by side, others had fallen across each other in great tangled heaps; through and over them grew thickets of small trees, or saplings, spice-wood and briars, all in a confused mass through which a horseman, or even one on foot, could scarcely clamber. Think, then, what a task it must have been to cut through this wilderness, a road wide enough to allow horses and wagon to pass. Many miles of the distance must be cut through such barriers as these. Sometimes, on higher ground, the thickets and undergrowth were not so dense, and only the trees—those great, giant trees—must be cut away before the wagons could pass.

The immigrant pushed on, however, cutting his road through the forest, and “blazing” the way as he went—that is, he cut a portion of the bark from the trees on either side, as a mark to show the way. This blazed roadway was a guide to the next immigrant who came that way. In some places the ground was so wet and swampy, that he was obliged to cut down small trees, or saplings, as they were called, and place them side by side across the road, to keep

the horses and wagon from sinking in the mire. These were called "corduroy" roads, and very rough and uncomfortable ones they were to travel.

There were no bridges, and when an unknown stream was reached, before risking his family and property in crossing, the pioneer would unhitch a horse from the wagon, and ride through the water on horseback, measuring its depth, and selecting the safest place for crossing. By marking the spot, the next traveler was saved this trouble. Thus did the pioneers make each step easier for those who came after them.

At night, the family slept in the woods, miles and miles away from any human being, and often exposed to dangers from Indians, and from panthers, wolves and other wild animals. By keeping his camp-fire burning brightly, and with his trusty rifle by his side, the pioneer was able to keep the wild beasts away; he was indeed fortunate if his fire did not attract the attention of the wild men.

Days and weeks passed in this tiresome manner. Sometimes a little child would sicken on the way. The parents would watch it with anxious care, and do all in their power to relieve its suffering. In agony they would see the little life pass away, with no kind friends to comfort them. With almost broken hearts they would dig a shallow grave in the dark forest, and tenderly place the little form in the ground and cover it from their sight. They would linger awhile about the little mound, and in tears and sadness leave it to nature's care, and journey on. There was little time for grief.

Under such difficulties, and through such dangers, the pioneer men and women of Indiana reached the place they

were seeking. There was scarcely a mile of the way but had its story—ofttimes its tragedy.

The first act, after arriving at the place they wished to make their home, was to select a spot for a house, which was usually near some spring, or stream of water. Here the ground was quickly cleared by cutting away the trees and brush, and the settler's cabin built from trees felled for the purpose. The logs were cut the proper length, left round, and often with the bark upon them. They were notched down at the ends, and placed one upon the other, with the notches fitting into each other, to hold them secure. When the walls were built, the roof was covered with clap-boards, or long boards split from logs, and fastened down with poles and wooden pins. A fireplace and chimney were made of sticks and mud; the floor was made of thick wooden slabs called "puncheons." Sometimes, when the season was late, the ground served as a floor until the settler had planted his crop.

A small opening for a window was made by cutting away a portion of a log; this was left open in summer, and in winter greased paper was pasted over it, which let in the light and kept out the cold. An opening was left for the door, which was made of heavy boards, split from logs, and fastened together with wooden pegs, and hung on wooden hinges. It was fastened by a wooden latch, which was raised by a leather string; by drawing the string inside, the door was fastened and could not be opened from the outside. The space between the logs was filled with stiff mud, or mortar, which kept out the cold in winter. Not a nail was used in the entire building.

Only such articles as could be made by the settler himself

were used to furnish this little home in the forest. Very little could be brought in the wagon, which must carry the family, a few dishes, clothing, bedding, and cooking utensils, with provisions enough to last until more could be raised. As for buying furniture, that was not to be thought of—first, because nothing of the kind could be found in the wilderness, and second, because the settler had but little, if any money; besides, the land must be paid for—a small price to be sure, but it often taxed him to the utmost to pay the small sum required by the government. So, with the tools he brought with him—an ax, a saw, and a hammer—the pioneer made the furniture for his cabin, which was to be kitchen, parlor, dining-room and bed-room all in one.

The cooking was done at the open fireplace; beds were made by driving pegs into the wall and placing boards across them; upon this, ticks filled with leaves, or straw, if they could get it, were placed, softened, perhaps, by a feather-bed from the old home; over this were spread the blankets, quilts, etc., which they also brought with them. A rough table was made of boards split from logs; a shelf or two was fastened to the wall, upon which were placed the dishes, which were often of pewter or tin; the dishes, plates and spoons were of pewter; the cups, pans and coffee-pot of tin. After the settlements were formed, there was often great rivalry among the housekeepers, in keeping tin and pewter ware bright and floors and tables clean and white.

Chairs or stools were made of slabs, or puncheons, to which were fastened wooden legs; on two forked sticks over the door hung the settler's rifle, while the family wearing apparel ornamented the walls. They had but few cooking vessels—a "dutch oven," or deep skillet with an iron cover,

a few pans, and a kettle or two—that was all; a chest or box brought from the old home completed the furniture. In homes like this, the first settlers in Indiana lived. In homes like this their children were born and reared, and in such a home, in southern Indiana, the immortal Abraham Lincoln spent the early years of his life.

No candles or lamps had these early settlers, but the little cabin was lighted by the cheerful blaze from the great open fireplace. By and by they made candles by wrapping a strip of linen or cotton cloth around a stick ten or twelve inches long, and covering it with tallow pressed on with the hands. These gave lights for several nights. Lamps were made by scraping half a turnip down to the rind, placing a stick three inches long in the center, so it would stand upright, wrapping a piece of cloth around it, and pouring melted lard, bear's grease, or deer's tallow into the turnip rind until it was full; it was then ready for use. Such lights as these would be poor substitutes for the brilliant illuminations of the present time, but by such lights as these, on long winter evenings, the women spun the thread and wove the "linsey-woolsey" which, by the same light, they afterward made into clothing for the family.

To clear a little patch of ground for corn and vegetables was the next thing to be done after the cabin was built. This was not an easy task, for the timber was heavy and the green logs and brush not easily burned or removed. The first fields were imperfectly cleared, but on them were raised a little corn, a few pumpkins and potatoes for immediate use.

It was a hard winter's work to clear three or four acres of ground, and prepare it for planting in the spring. The

trees must not only be cut down, but they must be burned; the decayed logs and brush must also be collected and burned to be out of the way of the plow. The settler's wife and children often assisted in the work of clearing the ground, as they afterward did at the plow and in the corn and wheat harvest. At the proper season, when the sap, or liquid flow, which is the blood of the trees, was circulating through trunk and branches, the settler went to the ground he wished to clear, and with his ax chopped the bark around each tree. This stopped the circulation of this life-giving fluid, and caused the trees to die and decay. Such a spot of ground was called a "deadening." The settler left the trees until such a time as he could clear the ground. Here they stood, those tall dead trees, stretching out their bare, leafless branches in strange contrast to the bright green foliage of the living trees about them.

Many of these deadened trees fell of their own accord, others were chopped or burned down. The logs were cut, or burned in pieces ten or twelve feet long, and then rolled together in heaps, the brush piled upon them, and all burned together. The light from these "clearings" could be seen for some distance, and sent strange shadows dancing through the trees at night. It often took days to burn these "log-heaps," and morning and evening the settler must bring the burnt ends of the logs together with a long pole, or "hand-spike." This was called "righting up the log-heaps." After the settlements were formed, the pioneers would assist each other in clearing the ground.

In the spring, the newly cleared ground was plowed, and the seeds planted, but the work was by no means done. There was always danger of the seeds being taken up by

birds and squirrels, for the fields were surrounded by forests which were full of pests, and it was necessary to keep constant watch over them, or the labor of planting would be lost. In the fall, while the crop was maturing, there was equal danger from raccoons, and other thieves of the woods. It was a hard, difficult life that these settlers lived, shut away from the world and all communication with friends—dependent upon their own resources for the means of living and the necessities of life; it was a continuous battle against nature, wild animals and wild men, for not until after Indiana became a State was all fear from prowling savages removed, and we have seen how, in earlier times, many poor families suffered at their hands before their power was finally broken.

There were no saw-mills, no grist-mills, no stores or shops in the country. The grain, when ripened, was grated, or pounded into meal for bread. Not only must the settlers spin, weave and make their own clothing, but they must raise the material as well. They grew flax and spun it into thread, which they wove into a kind of coarse cloth for summer wear. They raised sheep, and spun the wool into thread, which they knit into stockings and wove into cloth for winter. They colored the thread or the cloth with the bark from trees. They made the soap with which they washed their clothing. In fact, they did every kind of work and supplied all their own necessities.

Their food was procured in different ways. The wild game of the forest furnished the meat; deer, bear, wild-hog, turkey and squirrel were to be found in abundance; corn, wheat and vegetables were raised on the ground they cleared; wild fruits—grapes, plums, crab-apples, paw-paws,

wild cherries and many varieties of berries—were found in the woods. Honey, too, was often found in large quantities, and hunting bee-trees was a profitable business for leisure hours. Coffee was made of parched wheat or corn; tea was made from spice-wood, sassafras, and different kinds of herbs which grew in the woods.

No physicians could be had, however much they were wanted. The pioneer and his wife were their own doctors, and in sickness they used such simple remedies as they knew, and made medicines of the herbs that were known to have healing qualities. One common remedy in the early days was to bleed the patient; this was done for the healing of all diseases.

There were no post offices, nor postal routes, and no regular way of communicating with friends. The first settlers were as completely cut off from their old home and friends as though an ocean rolled between them. By and by, when other immigrants came, and when settlements were formed, letters were sent by private hands. When people in the east wished to send letters to their friends on the frontier, they addressed them to the settlement in which they lived, and gave them to some emigrant, who in turn gave it to some other person going to that settlement, or near it.

The settlements were all called by some particular name, as the "Pigeon Roost Settlement," "Jones' Settlement," etc. Sometimes weeks, perhaps months, would pass before such letters reached their destination in this irregular fashion, but they were none the less welcome because the news they contained was somewhat stale.

Through fear of the Indians, the first cabins were made very strong; the doors were often three or four inches thick,

strongly made, and were fastened on the inside by strong wooden bars. After all danger from the savages was passed, the wooden latch with the leather latch-string was used. In the day-time the latch-string hung outside; at night it was drawn inside, which prevented anyone from opening the door from the outside.

Wolves, bears, panthers, wild-cats and other wild animals prowled around the settler's cabin in the darkness and made night hideous, while the fear of the Indians was constantly upon them. The treacherous habits of the savages made them more to be dreaded, for they never allowed their approach to a cabin to be known, but leaving the pathway to the door, they would slip behind the cabin and suddenly spring around the corner. Sometimes a family would be startled by seeing five, ten, or perhaps twenty Indians at the door, armed with tomahawks, guns and scalping knives. Amid such hardships and dangers, the settlers lived and worked to make themselves a home.

By and by the little cabin in the woods began to look more home-like. Vines clambered over the rough walls, bright flowers bloomed in the little door-yards, which were inclosed by a rail fence; other and greater fields were cleared, and surrounded by fences made of rails split from the trunks of trees; a log stable sheltered the horses and cattle, a well was dug near the door, and over it hung the long well-sweep, from which a bucket was suspended. Little by little, step by step, the never-ending progress continued. By and by the blue smoke curled above other cabins, neighbors appeared, settlements were formed, roads were made, mills were built, bridges made across streams, school-houses began to appear here and there, villages sprang up, which

grew into towns and cities, the forests grew less dense and finally almost disappeared. The log houses gave place to comfortable frame or brick dwellings, these to elegant homes; churches, schools, colleges were established over the country; railroads and canals were built; gravel roads and streets, miles and miles in length, were made.

And so the footsteps of progress can be traced until we have the Indiana of to-day, with her cities, her mansions, her towns and villages, her railroads, her churches, her institutions of learning, her arts, her sciences, her monuments, her people; and all this progress has been made in less than one hundred years.

CHAPTER XVII.

Occupation and Social Life of the Pioneers.

The life of the pioneer, although rough and filled with hard work, was not without its pleasures. After the country became more settled, and neighbors were nearer, more time was given to social enjoyment, but always mixed with hard work.

When a house was to be raised, or logs to be rolled off a new piece of ground, an invitation was sent to every man in the settlement to come on a certain day and help. No matter how busy he was with his own work, no man refused to assist his neighbor. Nor did he go alone, but was usually accompanied by his wife and daughters, who went to help the "women folks" prepare the dinner. The children were also included in the party, and a gala day was made of the

occasion. Sometimes the hostess would invite the women of the neighborhood to a "quilting" on that day, and a merry time was enjoyed in the little cabin, which rang with the sound of happy voices keeping time to the busy fingers.

These occasions were very sweet to the pioneer women, who lived lonely, solitary lives, and whose hearts often yearned for the old home and friends. It was no uncommon thing for a family to live miles from any human beings; yet all within reach were neighbors, and five or ten miles was not considered a great distance for a man or woman to go on horseback, or on foot, to visit the sick or do a neighborly kindness.

The men in the clearings were not without their pleasures, and many a rough joke broke the monotony of their labors; many a test of strength and skill was made with the long hand-spike, or by lifting and wrestling. And then, when the noon hour arrived, how merrily they would gather around the table in the little cabin, and how the young men and girls would blush at the very sight of each other, and how rapidly the food would disappear down the hungry throats, amid such laughing and chattering as would do one good to hear!

Then, again, when the corn was ripe and gathered in, came the merry "huskings," which were particularly pleasurable for the young people, for a dance or a merry play was sure to follow. The corn was divided into two heaps of equal size. The huskers were divided into two companies, and captains placed over them. The company which finished husking its heap first, won the contest. How they worked, and how rapidly the piles of white and yellow corn grew, and how the husks flew and rose in great billowy

heaps behind the huskers! When the last ear was finished on one side, the successful workers gave a glad shout, and gathering up their captain, triumphantly carried him on their shoulders into the ranks of the other company, and amid such boisterous laughter, ridiculed the tardy huskers. Then followed the merry plays and the dance.

However well the pioneer men fought the battle of life, the pioneer women fought just as bravely and as well; they endured hardships as great and shared equally with their husbands and fathers their responsibilities and trials. They lived lives of true heroism and patient endurance. They, too, were helpful to each other. They sometimes took their spinning-wheels and walked a mile, or perhaps two or three miles, to attend a "spinning bee" in order to assist a neighbor, and the busy wheels and the busy voices would startle the birds in the tall trees outside the cabin. After hours of hard work, they enjoyed the simple meal prepared for them by their hostess, and in the evening joined in some innocent amusements, to which the men had been invited. Quilting, wool-picking and many other kinds of work were done with the assistance of the women of the settlement, and all such occasions were turned into seasons of merriment, which broke the monotony of their hard-working lives. The men and women of early Indiana were usually in the prime of life and enjoyed all such merry-making. Very few aged people came to the State in the pioneer days.

Boys and girls were taught from their early childhood that they must assist in the work going on about them. The boys fed the pigs, chopped and carried in the wood, and did the other chores after a day's work in the clearing, or at the plow, or in the harvest. The girls quit the spinning-wheel,

or their sewing, or knitting, to milk the cow, feed the chickens and wash the dishes. There was no time for idleness, even among the children, for farms were to be cleared, and a great State was to be made, and each must do his part.

The tools of the settler were an ax, a broad-ax, a maul and wedge, a froe, a whip-saw and hand-spike. His work was to go into the woods, chop, hew, saw, split and rive; to build houses and stables of logs; to make fences of rails, which he split from trees; to clear and plow the ground, and to plant, cultivate and gather the crops of wheat, corn and vegetables. The ground was so thickly covered with stumps that it was very difficult to plow among them, and corn and vegetables were cultivated with the hoe. The stumps were burned and dug out as rapidly as possible, but in the beginning they gave a very rough appearance to the fields. It took years to clear a field entirely of them.

Oats and wheat were sown broadcast, after the ground was prepared, and the settler tied brush together and dragged it over the newly-sown seed, thus lightly covering it with soil. After a time, harrows with wooden teeth were introduced, and the farmer who was so fortunate as to own one had plenty of opportunities to loan it to his neighbors; in fact, borrowing and lending was a special feature of pioneer neighboring. Sheep-shears were also an important implement in a pioneer settlement, one or two pairs serving for an entire neighborhood.

When the wheat matured and was ready to be harvested, it was cut with a crooked knife, called a sickle, and tied in bunches, or bundles, and placed in shocks of a dozen bundles each. Mowing machines had not been invented and could not have been used among the stumps which covered the

fields. The wheat shocks were gathered into a shed, or made into stacks until ready for threshing; this was done by spreading it on the floor, or the hard ground, and beating it with a flail, made of a small hickory sapling, to one end of which a separate piece of wood was fastened by a leather strap, or string, to give it more play, or force. By much beating with this instrument, the grain was separated from the straw, which was lifted away with wooden forks, and placed in a pile, or stack. There yet remained the chaff among the grain. To separate this, two men, or a man and a woman, took hold of the corners of a linen sheet, and by spreading it out and tossing it and fanning it in the air, a breeze was created which blew away the chaff, leaving the golden grain pure and clean.

Flax was also an important crop in pioneer days. After it had matured, it was pulled up by the roots and spread on the ground, where it was left to rot in the sun and rain; this loosened the lint from the stems. It was then broken in short lengths, in a machine with wooden blades, called a "flax-brake." The lint, or stringy fiber, was then cleaned from the stems by a process called "scutching," after which the coarse fiber was ready for the "hackle," which was a board filled with pointed iron teeth, through which the lint was drawn until all the loose particles of tow were separated. It was then rolled up in small bundles and spun into threads, which the busy housewife wove into cloth, from which dresses and underclothing were made for the women and children, and shirts and trousers for the men and boys. The bed and table linen was also woven of flax and the threads knit into stockings for the family.

The women did all the housework—cooking, washing,

scrubbing, milking and butter-making; they did spinning, weaving, sewing, knitting, mending, rearing their children and sometimes teaching them from books, for there were no schools in the early days; and besides all this, they often helped in the clearings and in the fields. All manner of privations and hardships were theirs, and that weariness of mind and body which comes of ceaseless toil.

Their food was the plainest. Wheat bread was a luxury that few could afford. Corn bread was the staple food, and it was made in the simplest way. The meal was mixed with salt and water and made into a stiff dough; this was placed on a smooth clap-board, two or more feet long and about an inch thick. This was placed in a leaning position before a hot fire; when partly baked, the "Johnny-cake," as it was called, was turned on the board, and the other side was put toward the fire. Sometimes the dough was baked in lumps in a "dutch-oven;" this was called "dodger," and very sweet and wholesome it tasted to the tired and hungry men. Molasses was sometimes made by extracting the sweet substance from the pumpkin and boiling it until it became a sirup. Sugar and molasses were also made from the maple trees.

The pioneers had no luxuries. Matches, which we consider a necessity, were unknown to them. Fire was kept from day to day, from year to year, by covering heaps of coals with ashes in the open fire-place. It was a calamity when the fire went out, and if there were no neighbors, as was often the case, it must be kindled by striking a flint over a tinder box. If there were neighbors, it was easier to borrow from them.

One foe to the pioneer was malaria. With the clearing out of the forests and swamps, the plowing of the fields, the

drying out of lands and the decay of vegetable matter, came chills and fever; very few escaped it. Strong men and women, and little children alike, were stricken with this dread disease. Sometimes the usual remedies failed to restore health, and the patient died, a victim to the unhealthy condition of the country. Sad indeed was the day when the little procession of mourners followed the dead along the road which wound its way in and out through the trees which grew between the little cabin in the clearing and the graveyard in the forest.

Before the pioneer had time to build fences around his farm, cattle, hogs and sheep were allowed to run at will through the woods. They were usually marked by cutting the ear in some peculiar manner; these were called "ear-marks." Often a bell was hung by a leather strap to the neck of a cow or a sheep. These bells were made by the settlers, and each knew the sound of his own bell.

Sometimes it became necessary for the settler to make a journey to some town on the Ohio River to buy provisions, such as "bread-stuff," and other necessities which they could not provide for themselves. It often required weeks to make this journey, and during the time nothing could be heard from the traveler. If he was attacked and killed by wild beasts or by the Indians, his fate was never known.

By and by mills were built on the frontier; small, rude affairs, to be sure, but they filled a much-felt want. Some of these mills were run by water, others by horse power. In either case, it was slow work grinding corn into coarse meal for family use. The "grist" was prepared by the settler and his family, by the bright blazing fire of his cabin. Baskets of corn were brought in, and after supper, the entire

family would assist in shelling it from the cob. It was then put into a bag, and the next day the settler placed it on the back of a horse, mounted behind it, and started on his journey to the mill, which was often a long distance away. It sometimes required three or four days to make the journey to and from the mill. When he arrived, he would probably find others there before him and must wait his turn.

As time went on, these conditions changed. Other and larger mills were built. Each settlement had its store, its blacksmith, shoemaker and other mechanics. By and by the log cabins gave place to hewed-log houses, some of them with an upper room. Bedsteads and other furniture could be bought. Trundle-beds that could be rolled under the tall bedstead was a space-saving arrangement; in this the children were stowed away at night, from two to a half dozen occupying the same bed. It was a proud day when the family owned a looking-glass, though it was probably not more than ten or twelve inches long.

There were vices, too, in those days, as there are now, for many rough people came into the new country. In some places, cock-fighting, drinking and gambling were common. Almost every family kept a quantity of whiskey, which was considered good medicine for "chills," and small distilleries were soon established in settled parts of the country. There were Christian men and women, however, who, in the face of all such influences, rescued society from the rowdy element by the purity of their lives and influence.

The people of those early times were merry-hearted, cheerful, kind and neighborly. Although their hardships were many, they brought much sunshine into their everyday lives. They were by nature much like the people we

know; it was their circumstances and surroundings that made them different.

Their wants were simple, and they worked hard to live within their means. They loved the beautiful, and without the means of providing themselves with beautiful homes, elegant surroundings, and handsome clothing, they adorned their little cabins the best way they could, and lived close to nature, which is always beautiful. Blooming vines clambered over the walls of the little forest homes, and every doorway was made bright and fragrant by its bed of roses, sweet-briar, pinks, and other sweet, old-fashioned flowers.

CHAPTER XVIII.

Early Surveys—How the Land was Sold.

Did you ever notice how the land in Indiana is divided into parts called farms, and lots owned by individuals, and wonder how it came to be so, and how it is that the owner can tell where his land ends and his neighbor's begins? Did you ever notice that the farm, or lot on which you live is surrounded by a fence or some other mark which separates your grounds from your neighbor's and from the street or road, and did you ever wonder why it is just there and not some other place? Did you ever think that there must be a reason for this, and that there is some law which governs such things?

If you did not, it will be interesting to know that all this is a part of a great system of surveying which was established when our country was new, and which has governed

such matters to the present time. Shall we not go back and try to understand it? It will be time well spent, and all we can learn about this subject may be of use to us in the future.

The great Northwestern Territory became the property of the United States in the year 1784. It was a valuable addition to the territory already possessed, and the question with statesmen concerning it was, what steps should be taken to settle the country and establish civilization in the wilderness.

We have seen that the most of the land belonged to the Indians, and that it was the policy, or plan, of the government to purchase it, and destroy the Indian titles. This must be done before the government could offer the land for sale, or before immigrants could settle upon it and improve it.

Many of the Indians were opposed to the settlement of the country by the Americans, and refused to sell their lands, and the government could only get possession of certain tracts at a time; but it was purchased as rapidly as the Indians would part with their titles—a tract here, another there, until by and by the greater portion of the Northwestern Territory was under the control of the United States and was called “government land.”

In order to know just what territory belonged to the government, and what was still the property of the Indians, it was necessary to have the land surveyed, or measured, and the dividing lines distinctly marked. So, in the year 1785, the United States Congress passed a law for the disposal of the land which had been ceded to the government by individual States, and had afterward been bought from the In-

dians. This law provided that the President should appoint a surveyor from each State, who should act under the Geographer of the United States. This officer is now called the Surveyor-General.

The surveyors were required to take an oath for the faithful discharge of their duty, for the work they were to do was of great importance, and concerned the welfare of millions of people who should in future occupy the territory. The first work of the surveyors in Indiana was to divide the Territory into townships six miles square and containing thirty-six square miles each. The lines which marked these townships were to run due north and south, and were to be crossed by lines running due east and west, and they were not to conflict with the land belonging to the Indians. This was called the "rectangular system of survey." To run these lines, there must be a starting point, or base, from which to measure. To aid in this, the government established lines running due north and south, at equal distances apart; these were called "Meridian Lines." The first of these meridians formed the boundary between Indiana and Ohio. The second meridian starts where the Little Blue River empties into the Ohio, and runs to the northern boundary of the State.

So much of the land yet belonged to the Indians—only a few tracts in Southern Indiana being the property of the United States—that it was found convenient to begin the survey on this second meridian line; so a line was run due east and west, crossing the second meridian line six miles below the present town of Paoli, in Orange County. From the point where these two lines cross, almost all the territory in Indiana was surveyed.

Having found the base, or first lines of the survey, the territory was divided into townships, as described above, which were numbered progressively north and south from the base line, and east and west from the meridian line. The lines were measured with great care, by the use of very fine instruments, together with a surveyor's chain, and the lines surveyed were marked through the timber-lands by chopping, or "blazing," the trees on each side. These were called "line trees," or "witness trees." When no trees were on the line, those nearest on both sides were "blazed" in such a way as pointed toward the line the surveyors had run. When a tree stood at the precise spot where a corner was to be made, as was sometimes the case, it was marked in a peculiar manner, which showed that it was a corner of a township. When there were no trees, the spot was marked by planting a post, or large stone, with inscriptions marked on it, or sometimes heaps of stones, or small mounds of earth, were placed at these corners, and their position indicated by marking trees near them, and accurately describing them in the surveyor's notes, which were called "field notes." A drawing, or plat, of the survey was made, describing it exactly. On these plats, or drawings, the surveyors were required to mark the location of all the mines, salt springs, and mill sites that came within their knowledge, and to mark all water courses, mountains, and other unusual things over which, or near which their line should pass, and to make note of the quality of the land surveyed.

In the Land Office at the State House in Indianapolis, may still be seen the drawings, together with the "field notes" made by these early surveyors of our State. They are in excellent condition, and not only show the surveys as

they were made, but also the location of lands purchased from the Indians from time to time, the location of the roads and canals through the State, and many other interesting things connected with the history and development of our State.

When we remember the character of the country to be surveyed, we can form some idea of the difficulties of the undertaking. The country was almost as wild as the jungles of Africa—heavily wooded by a gigantic growth of trees, and was almost impenetrable by fallen trees in every stage of decay, and by a thick growth of brush, plants and vines of almost every description. The surface of the country varied in character, from the hills along the Ohio River to the marshes of Northern Indiana, with every variety of soil, from the clay deposits and sand hills, to the oozy soil of the marsh lands. Through all this the surveyor must cut his way, guided by the unerring hand of the magnetic needle; directly north and south, directly east and west, the lines must run, no matter what obstacles stood in the way; over hills, through swamps, across deep, swift streams, he must follow the direction given by the little needle which always points toward the North Star. In addition to these difficulties, he was in constant danger of being attacked by the Indians, many of whom, as we know, were opposed to selling the lands to the Americans, and in some instances the work of surveying was greatly retarded by these hostile bands, but in time it was completed.

After the townships were surveyed they were divided into lots, called “sections.” Each section was one mile square, and contained six hundred and forty acres of land. There were thirty-six of these lots, or sections, in each township,

and they were numbered in running order from one to thirty-six. The surveyors were required to mark the corners of these section lines in some way by which they could be distinguished from the township lines, and to keep a strict record of them.

When the land was opened for sale, the plats, or drawings, were placed in the hands of officers called the Board of Treasury, who made a record of them. They also made copies of the original drawings for the commissioners of the Land Office, who had charge of the sale of the land, and who were required to give notice of the sale by advertisements posted up at court-houses and other public places in each county, and published in one newspaper in the State. These advertisements were to be made from two to six months before the land was sold; they were then sold in the following manner: Township No. 1, in the first row, or range of townships, was sold entire; township No. 2, in the same range, or row, was sold in lots of one hundred and sixty acres, or less; No. 3 was sold entire; No. 4 by lots, and so on, in alternate order through the first range or row. Township No. 1, in the second range, was sold by lots, and Township No. 2, in the same range, was sold entire; and so on through the second range. The third range of townships was sold in the same manner as the first, and the fourth in the same manner as the second; and thus alternately through all the ranges. No land was to be sold at a price less than one dollar per acre.

Out of every township four lots were reserved for the United States, and lot No. 16, in every township, was reserved for public school purposes within the township, and was called "school land." These school lots were sometimes

leased for a certain length of time, and the persons leasing them were required to make certain improvements each year; that is, to clear so many acres of land, plant so many fruit trees, etc. The land was afterward sold and the proceeds placed in the school fund, and this was the beginning of the present school system in Indiana.

For convenience in selling the land, each section was divided into four equal parts, called "quarter sections," each containing one hundred and sixty acres; these quarter sections were again divided into eighths and sixteenths of sections, containing respectively eighty and forty acres. Forty acres was the smallest amount of land sold by the government to one person, although the purchaser might buy as much more as he desired. Any one, after buying the land, could divide it and sell as small quantities as he chose. When the public land was sold, the land officer received the money and gave the purchaser a deed, or patent, for it, from the United States, which was recorded in the General Land Office.

As the lands were surveyed and opened for settlement, the State was divided into "land districts," and offices opened in each district. There were seven of these offices in Indiana, and they were located at Brookville, Vincennes, Jeffersonville, Indianapolis, Crawfordsville, Winamac and Fort Wayne. When the most of the land was sold, these offices were consolidated into one general land office at Indianapolis, and any land in the State remaining unsold was purchased through those in authority at this office.

The owner of any land may sell it, and transfer it to the purchaser by a deed, acknowledged before a magistrate, or notary public, and entered in the records of the county in

which it is situated. Titles to land may be inherited by will, which must be recorded. In case there is no will, heirs to land must have their titles made perfect by the judge of the court, after which it is recorded. When land is sold in payment for debt, the proper officer making the sale by order of court, conveys the title to the purchaser in proper form. This plan keeps a perfect chain of title, which may at any time be traced back to the original deed, or patent.

As we have seen, the first purchases of land made from the Indians was in the southern part of the State, and only this was surveyed. Other tracts lying north of these purchases were from time to time bought, surveyed and offered for sale; and in this way the entire territory of Indiana was purchased, each new purchase pushing the natives farther and farther toward the north, until finally they sold all of their land and emigrated westward, beyond the Mississippi, and Indiana became the property of the United States, and was divided to make homes for the thousands of people who live within her borders. And so you will see that the lot on which the house you live in stands, is a part of the great survey ordered by the United States government, which has been divided again and again, until it may be but a few feet in extent.

Shall I tell you how near the settlers came losing the land upon which they had put so much hard work? After the land purchased from the Indians had been surveyed, and a land office opened, it was ready for sale, and a man wishing to purchase, or "enter," land, as it was called, selected the tract he wished to buy, and paid to the land agent the sum required by the government, and received a "certificate of purchase," which secured the land to him for a certain

length of time, when, if he had met all the payments, he received a deed, or "patent," which made it his own, and no one could take it from him.

The government fixed the price of land at \$2 per acre, and one-fourth of the price of a tract of land must be paid when it was "entered" and the remainder in two equal annual payments, with interest. If a settler failed to meet any one of these payments, he forfeited both the land and the money he had paid, and all his work in clearing and improving it was lost.

The most of the early immigrants to Indiana were very poor men; many of them had scarcely enough money to make the first payment on their land, and but few of them were able to meet the payments as they came due. It was all they could do to clear the land and raise produce for their own use, and if they had a surplus, there was no market for it. Almost the only way in which they could procure money was by selling the furs and skins of animals. And so it happened that in the year 1820, many of the settlers were on the point of losing their homes and all their hard work.

This failure to meet their payments placed them at the mercy of the government, which had the power to sell the lands from them; this would probably have been done, but for James Noble, the United States Senator from Indiana, and Jonathan Jennings, Indiana's Representative to Congress. Through their efforts laws were enacted, extending the time of the payments on the land, and thus enabling the settlers to meet them.

When Mr. Noble (who had worked very hard for this law) returned to his home in Indiana, the settlers came long distances to thank him for saving their homes for them.

CHAPTER XIX.

Religious Worship—New Harmony.

Many of the pioneer settlers of Indiana were Christian men and women, and they counted it among their greatest hardships that they must be deprived of the privilege of attending religious worship.

No sooner had three or four families settled in a locality than they tried to have some kind of religious service on the Sabbath day. They would meet together at one of their cabins, to read their Bibles and sing and pray; perhaps some one would attempt a little sermon, or, perhaps a strolling preacher would be present, or some one would read from a book of sermons.

As the settlements grew larger they would hold service in the school-house, and in some neighborhoods they built little log churches in the woods, which they called "meeting-houses." Near these little churches they would clear off a spot of ground, build a rail fence around it, and in this inclosure they would bury their dead. No marble shaft marked the grave; only a rough board, on which the name was rudely carved, told where the loved one slept.

Every Sabbath day, in winter and in summer, fathers, mothers, sons and daughters, dressed in their best homespun clothes, would wend their way through the woods to this place of worship. Sometimes they went on foot, sometimes in wagons; but the common way to travel was on horseback. The father and mother often rode the same horse, each holding a child, sometimes two, before them.

The "meeting-houses" were not always comfortable places of worship. The rude benches were made of split logs without backs, into which pegs had been fastened for legs. The only heat came from the open fireplace, and in some cases they had no means at all of heating the room. Sometimes they brought iron kettles filled with live coals, which produced a little heat and kept them from freezing. Stoves were unknown in those days. The only light they had came through greased paper pasted over a hole cut in the wall. The cracks between the logs let in the cold, and sometimes the snow drifted into the barren little church. In summer it was not so unpleasant. The spreading branches of the forest trees made a grateful shade about the cabin, and the songs of the birds flitting through them were sweeter than the trained voices of a church choir.

Here, too, they held their Sunday-schools, which were attended by both old and young. The lessons were not outlined for them as they are for us, with "golden texts" and instructions for studying; indeed, that would have been of little use, for many of them could read but little, some of them not at all. Those who could not read, both old and young, brought spelling books to Sabbath-school, and for these classes were formed, and they were taught to spell and read. As soon as they could read a little, they were put to work on the New Testament, and were taught to read and understand its lessons.

Occasionally a traveling preacher came through the country and stopped at the settlements; arrangements were immediately made for holding religious service. Messengers were sent to every family in the settlement, and they gathered at the appointed time to hear him preach.

Perhaps no class of men in pioneer days was more deserving of respect, or accomplished more good, than those ministers of the gospel, known as the "circuit riders." They were called by this name because they traveled around from one settlement to another, and after they had visited all the settlements for perhaps a hundred, or it may be two hundred miles, they began over again; and from this going round and round, they came to be known as the "circuit riders."

These men devoted their lives to the cause of Christianity. They left their homes and traveled on horseback over the worst imaginable roads, often with no road at all, except the "blazed" bridle-path, or the Indian trail, and sometimes not even this, to guide them. The settlements were so far apart that it was often impossible to travel from one to another in a day, and they were obliged to sleep in the open air, with no covering except the broad branches of the forest trees; but they were so used to hardships of this kind that they did not much mind it, and spent years and years of their lives preaching to the rough pioneer people.

The circuit riders were not always cultured men, nor were they educated, except in a broad sense; but they were just suited to the conditions of the people, and brought to them the "tidings of great joy" as they journeyed through the wilderness. They cheerfully bore all hardships, were tender and sympathetic and made themselves very pleasant and agreeable to the humble pioneers, who eagerly looked forward to their coming. They preached the gospel in a fearless manner, little heeding whom they might offend. They were bold in the discharge of duty and attacked all forms of sin, without fear or favor. Their sermons were very long,

often lasting two or more hours, but their audience listened with no thought that too much time was being consumed. The Bible was their theme. They preached the doctrine of "eternal punishment" with a force and eloquence that held their hearers spell-bound. Some of them were very eloquent in a bold, rough way, while others were truly orators.

There was no settlement in Indiana that the circuit riders did not in some way reach, and everywhere they went a warm welcome awaited them; a seat at the fireside and a share of the humble meal was always gladly offered them. Shut in by narrow surroundings, it was a rare treat to the pioneers to receive in their midst one who could give them news from the world outside of their own settlement, and perhaps bring messages from friends and kindred.

The circuit riders cared little for personal comfort. They were equally at home in the settler's cabin and the Indian wigwam. They took for their model that Savior whose sacrifice, self-denial and fortitude they tried to imitate. They were often ignorant of books, but they understood the natures and needs of their uncultured hearers. They received no money for their labors, for the settlers were too poor to pay; but with no expectation of reward, they continued in the work of their Master, happy if they could bring souls to Him.

Meetings were frequently held out of doors in summer and autumn. A rough pulpit was erected under the spreading trees, and seats were made of split logs; and here camp-meetings, often lasting for days, were held; and in times of great religious excitement, services were held both day and night.

The earliest settlers in Indiana were the French Catho-

lics, at Vincennes; Methodists, Baptists, Presbyterians and Quakers came later. Perhaps there were more Methodists than there were of any other religious denomination, and to this sect the circuit rider belonged.

In the year 1814 a society of Germans moved from Pennsylvania and formed a settlement in Indiana, on the Wabash River, about fifty miles above its mouth, in what is now Posey County. They bought a large tract of land and laid off a town, which they called Harmony. They erected a church and a public school house, opened farms, planted orchards and vineyards, built mills, a store house and a tavern, as houses of public entertainment were called, and carried on various kinds of manufactories and other industries.

There was one peculiarity about this settlement which made it different from every other settlement in Indiana—everything they owned was held in common; that is, no man or woman owned a bit of land, or a house, or a store, or a cow, or a horse, in his or her own right, but everything belonged to the entire community, and was just as much the property of one as of another. They did their work together, each performing his share, and the money they made was placed in one common fund. They drew their provisions, food, clothing, etc., from one common store; each had all he needed, and no one took more than his share. There were no idlers or drunkards among them; they never had any lawsuits, but settled all disputes among themselves before going to sleep at night.

The leader of this society was Frederick Rappe, who was the oldest man among them, and managed the affairs of the community both in and out of the church. There were about nine hundred persons in the settlement, and they

lived together in this peculiar and peaceful manner until the year 1825, when Robert Owen, a native of Scotland, purchased the town of Harmony and a large portion of the land lying near it, and the German association, under Frederick Rappe, returned to Pennsylvania.

Robert Owen, who had peculiar ideas concerning society, learning and Christianity, changed the name of the town to New Harmony, and attempted to establish a community composed of those who were inclined to adopt his faith and opinions. The experiment, however, was finally abandoned, but not until New Harmony had become renowned as a place of refinement and learning.

CHAPTER XX.

Pioneer Schools of Indiana.

In the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, in the State House in Indianapolis, there hangs a large map of Indiana. It differs from other maps of the State, because it is covered with a large number of dots which do not represent cities, towns and villages. Should you ask what they mean, you would be told that they represent the school-houses and colleges in Indiana. Should you try to count them, you would grow tired of the task, for there are about nine thousand of them.

When we look at this map and remember that for every dot we see there is a school-house somewhere, and that there are about eleven hundred high schools and fifty colleges in the State, and that five hundred and twenty-seven thousand

children attend these schools, and that fifteen thousand teachers are employed to teach them, we can scarcely realize that one hundred years ago there was not a school in the thirty-five thousand nine hundred and ten square miles which compose our State; that our beautiful capital was a wilderness, and that other cities and towns which now support large institutions of learning were unheard of.

The people who built their cabins in the woods had little time to think of education. It was all they could do to provide food and clothing for their families. It took months to clear an ordinary field and get it ready for the plow. In this the children, and often the women, assisted, and so great was the importance of preparing these fields for cultivation that had schools been situated in their midst, the children who were large enough to "pick brush" could not have been spared to attend. On the other hand, no matter how great the thirst for knowledge, it was not possible for a girl or a boy in Indiana to obtain an education in the State.

By and by, when the settlements became more populous, and when the settlers had cleared sufficient ground to raise grain and vegetables for family use, and perhaps a little to spare, some of the most ambitious began to long for the means of educating their children. So, a few families of this sort employed some young man or woman in the neighborhood who could read, write and spell, and perhaps knew something of numbers, to teach their children these accomplishments.

They would get together some fine day, and cut down trees and build a little cabin out of the rough, round logs, cover it with thick boards fastened down to the roof with poles and wooden pegs; make a puncheon floor, and door;

turn almost one entire side of it into a huge fire-place, with a stick-and-mud chimney; cut away a part of a log in the side for a window, over which they would paste greased paper to let in the light; fasten a broad, flat log beneath the window for a writing table; make a few benches by inserting legs in auger holes made in puncheons, and arrange them on either side and in front of the fire-place, place one at the writing table, and call the structure a school-house.

Very proud was a neighborhood of its first school-house. To this place of learning the pioneer children wended their way through the woods in all sorts of weather; the little girls dressed in their "linsey-woolsey" gowns, made with long, straight skirts, with short plain waist and straight sleeves, gathered into bands at the wrists. In summer they wore sun-bonnets and went with bare feet. In winter they wore woolen hoods and thick leather shoes made by some pioneer shoe-maker. The boys wore home-spun, home-woven jeans trousers and coat, made after the pattern of their fathers', with "gallowses" knitted of home-spun yarn, crossed in the back and fastened to the trousers with pegs or wooden buttons, also made at home. On their heads they wore coon-skin caps, and carried their dinners in a splint, or willow basket, made by the light of the cabin fire.

Quaint little pioneer men and women were they, starting in pursuit of that knowledge which was to help them solve the problems of life which they were soon to meet.

Of the qualifications of the teacher, not much can be said. Sometimes the settlers were fortunate enough to secure the service of a fairly educated man or woman who had emigrated from the east. If this was not possible, they took the material at hand, and that was not always the best. It was

better than nothing, however, and in these little cabin school-houses some of our prominent and leading statesmen received the first elements of an education. The books used by the first schools in Indiana were of a miscellaneous character; each child brought what happened to be in the family. The New Testament and Murray's English Reader were the common reading books.

It was no easy task for a boy or a girl to trudge three or four miles, over ice and snow, through unbroken forests; to cross streams over which there were no bridges except a "foot log," or tree felled across the stream. Sometimes, in rainy seasons, the water rose so high that this bridge was swept away, and for days, perhaps, the children could not reach the school.

The school-house was not always a comfortable place. The wind whistled about the little log cabin and found plenty of open space, or "cracks," as they were called, where it could creep in and chill the teacher and "scholars" in spite of the blazing fire in the big fire-place. Then, the seats were by no means comfortable; the long, straight benches had no backs, and often the feet of a boy or girl would not reach the floor by several inches. Here they must sit from morning till noon with no relief except when they stood to recite the lessons. It was the custom in those days to study the lessons aloud, and during the study hours the entire school would drone over spelling-book and reader, spelling each word carefully and in an audible tone, or in a loud whisper. When the writing hour came, those who wrote took seats on the bench by the long table at the window and followed the copy "set" by the "master" on paper or in the copy-book. Quill pens were used in writing. These the teacher

made with a sharp knife, from goose quills, as the long, stiff feathers which grow on the wings of the goose are called. It was one of the requirements that a teacher should be able to make "quill pens."

The school hours, like the working hours in those days, were very long, lasting in some neighborhoods from early morning until sunset, with but an hour, or an hour and a half, at noon for luncheon and recreation. The rules were very strict. It was believed that severe discipline was necessary to the education of a girl or boy, and a long, slender switch, or a bundle of them, was a part of the school furniture. These were not neglected, but were used without mercy upon the least provocation. The daily application of the "ferule" was considered by some teachers to be as necessary as the luncheon the children ate at the noon hour. Indeed, if either had been omitted it would probably have been the latter. There were teachers who made regular tours of the room and whacked each pupil over the shoulders, whether he deserved it or not.

Teachers were paid by their patrons, and to lessen the expense, they boarded among the families of the neighborhood, a week here, a week there, until they had spent a week with each family, and then they began all over again. This was called "boarding around."

There were often bad boys, and sometimes bad girls, who attended these schools and caused no end of trouble to the teacher, who believed that the only way to control a bad boy or girl was by force, and sometimes the struggle between teacher and pupil was long and severe. Usually the teacher was victorious, but it sometimes happened that the "backwoods bullies" were the winners in the game, and the teacher was driven from the school and from the settlement.

Sometimes a skillful man or woman would take charge of a school who had a sincere desire to help those placed in his or her charge; they would win the confidence and respect of the boys and girls, inspire in them a desire for learning and for a better life. The influence of such a man or woman was felt throughout an entire neighborhood, and did much to lift the people out of the great sea of ignorance in which they lived. Much of our advancement to-day is owing to such persons as these, who created in the settlers a thirst for knowledge and a wish to better their conditions.

Hard as the school days were for the children of early Indiana, there were also times of pleasure. Child nature is much the same the world over; race and conditions cannot change it, and these pioneer children also had their enjoyments. There were the pleasant spring mornings when the walk through the woods was a constant delight. Through winding paths these boys and girls would stroll, with the green boughs meeting over their heads, fragrant flowers blooming at their feet, while bright birds flitted through the branches, and the music of their voices filled the air. They would pause at the brook to watch the silver-finned fish as they darted about in the sunshine, or to gather the brightest flowers that grew beside the pathway. Every step was made charming and every moment was a delight. Perhaps some fine morning they were a little late in starting, and then the fear of the master's rod sent them hurrying along, regardless of the world of beauty and song about them.

Then there was the noon hour; what pleasures it brought to the hungry boys and girls! What delight to take down the rough dinner baskets, which hung on wooden pegs on

the side of the wall. They contained no dainty lunch, I assure you—a piece of “corn dodger,” it may be with butter, if the family owned a cow; a slice of meat, perhaps a piece of pie—all very tempting to the healthful boys and girls who ate their breakfast by the light of the tallow candle and tramped two or three miles before school time, and who had sat through the long hours with feet dangling from high benches, longing for this blessed dinner hour. They were required to sit very still and quiet while they ate their dinner, but in spite of this rigid rule and the watchful eye of the teacher, there was much suppressed mirth, and sly, mischievous tricks were played by those who managed to get great fun out of the occasion.

And when they were at last set at liberty, what a rush for the door! What shouts and glad laughter when they reached the open air! All their pent-up spirits burst forth, and the hour was a constant stream of enjoyment to their young natures. And then the games they played; there was “bat and ball” for the big boys; “ring-a-round-a-rosey” for the little girls; “black man,” and “ant’ny over,” and “base” for the whole school. “Tag” was the parting game, while, doubtless, capturing and scalping imaginary Indians formed an amusing pastime for those heroically inclined.

On rainy days they huddled around the fire, and guessed “riddles,” and told stories about Indians and “ghosts” and “witches.” These pastimes were carried home, and many an hour was whiled away by the cabin fire, telling tales of haunted houses, headless riders and ghosts in long, snowy robes and blood curdling stories of massacre and midnight slaughter, which sent both listener and narrator trembling to bed.

Perhaps they had their disputes, as children will, and it may be a fight between two big boys now and then, in which the teacher finally took a hand; but they were merry old times, with all their hardships, and many a tired man and woman has in after years looked back upon them with pleasurable longing.

Then there were the delightful spelling-schools, when the entire neighborhood went en masse to the little log school-house, which was crowded to the very door with men, women and children. Perhaps it was a spelling match between two rival schools, or neighborhoods. Then there was great excitement. They came for miles around, in sleds drawn, not by swift-footed steeds to the music of jingling bells, but by patient, mild-eyed oxen, or plodding work-horses, with perhaps a cow or sheep bell to keep time to their slow footsteps.

The hour for beginning having come, leaders were selected to "choose up," or divide the people into two companies, ranged on opposite sides of the school-house, which was lighted by tallow candles and by the blazing wood fire. The words were pronounced from a spelling-book by the teacher, or some one chosen for the purpose. Those who missed a word took their seats; by and by there would be but a few spellers left on either side, and finally, if well matched, only the two best spellers would remain standing. Then the excitement grew intense; breathlessly each side watched its champion, and a shout went up from the victorious side as the opponent went down. How some of those pioneers could spell! It often happened that page after page of the spelling-book would be learned "by heart" and sometimes recited word for word by some ambitious speller. It was a worthy ambition, now much fallen into decay.

And then the merry home-going! How they piled into the sleds with happy laughter, amid shouts of "good-bye" to friends and neighbors! How deep the shadows lay under the trees; how the silver moonbeams gleamed among the bare branches, and how the snow glistened in the soft silver light! How their voices rang out on the clear night air as some familiar song was sung, and how the plodding oxen half paused to listen to the music! Ah, there were merry times in the olden days, in spite of the hardships, toil and anxiety.

By and by the interest in education increased among the settlers. Better school-houses were built; plain wooden ones, to be sure, but they answered well the purpose for which they were erected. The early teachers were not always finished scholars, but they usually managed to instill into the minds of their pupils a genuine respect for learning.

The course of study in those early times was very different from that pursued by the boys and girls of to-day. To read, to write, to spell and to "cipher" a little was considered an average education, while a girl or a boy who had studied grammar and geography was quite looked up to, and considered sufficiently educated to "keep school."

The opportunities for reading and studying at home were very limited, indeed. The family library consisted, perhaps, of a half dozen books—the Bible, a hymn book, a book of religious poems, with perhaps Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," a Bible dictionary and Fox's Book of Martyrs, to give variety to the collection. By borrowing and reading all the books in the neighborhood, a boy or girl of that period was able, if he or she chose, to gather a little fund of information which formed the basis of an education which future circumstances might enable him or her to complete.

It sometimes happened that the settlers encouraged their children by taking a hand at mental improvement themselves. Geography schools and grammar schools were sometimes held in the school-house or the "meeting-house," where, seated around the open fire, the pioneers pored over the mysteries of the subject before them.

We already know of the spelling schools, and that to be the best speller in the neighborhood was a distinction to be coveted. Debating societies were formed, with "constitution and by-laws," and after a hard day's work the settler and his family would meet their neighbors at the little school-house to hear the important questions of the day discussed with "backwoods eloquence." Subjects of both social and political importance were thoroughly investigated. National problems were debated and settled in a masterful style, quite to their satisfaction. The slavery question, the temperance cause, questions relating to banks and banking, to tariff and taxation—these, as well as many scientific and social subjects, occupied the attention of these pioneer orators.

Some of these debaters became noted among their neighbors for their eloquence, clearness, force and excellence of language, as well as for ingenuity in argument, and wit, humor and power of expression.

CHAPTER XXI.

Public School System.

The wise men who framed the laws which were to govern the State, looking far into the future, when the wilderness should become a great and densely populated country, realized that knowledge is necessary to happiness, and laid the foundation for the present system of education in Indiana.

As far back in history as the year 1785, after the conquest of the Northwestern Territory by George Rogers Clark, Congress passed an ordinance, which is nothing more than a law for the government of a certain territory, which declared that one square mile in every township in the Northwestern Territory should be set apart for the maintenance of public schools.

Two years later a new ordinance or law was passed by Congress for the government of the same territory, which confirmed this policy and declared that "religion, morality and knowledge are essential to good government and the happiness of a people," and that schools and the means of an education should forever be encouraged in the new Territory. This is called the "ordinance of 1787," and is the same law which declared that slavery should not exist in the Territory. To these two great principles laid down for us by those long ago dead statesmen, we owe much of our happiness and prosperity.

While Indiana was still a territory, the subject of establishing schools was often brought before the people by the Governors and friends of education, but owing to the many

difficulties which stood in the way, no regular system could be adopted. The constant danger from the savages, and the hard struggle for existence, left the settlers but little time for other matters, however important. In 1807, the Territorial Legislature passed an act to incorporate the Vincennes University, and Governor Harrison was made a member of the Board of Trustees. The following year, a law was made giving courts the power to lease the lands which had been reserved in each township for school purposes. These leases were not to be for longer than five years, and the persons leasing the land were required to increase its value by clearing at least ten acres on every quarter section, or one hundred and sixty acres, and they were not allowed to waste valuable timber.

The Constitution of 1816 required the State Legislature to provide suitable laws for the management of school land, and to prevent its sale before the year 1820. It also required that laws should be made to provide for the security and use of all the school funds, and that a general system of education should be established, which should embrace all grades of scholarship, from the common schools to a State University, wherein tuition should be free to all.

For a long time after Indiana became a State, little or nothing was done toward establishing a public school system. The chief difficulty was the lack of money with which to build school-houses and employ teachers. There were thousands of acres of land belonging to the school fund, but there was very little money. Then there were but few capable teachers, either in the towns or country, and the population of the school districts was small. Besides all this, many of the settlers did not see the necessity of edu-

cating their children, and were utterly indifferent to the matter, while a few were positively opposed to it; then, the children were needed at home, to assist in the clearings and in the fields at planting season and in gathering in the crops, and for other work, so there was little time for study.

Notwithstanding these obstacles, several academies and library associations were established within a few years, and the Legislature provided for the appointment of superintendents of each school section, who were authorized to lease the school lands for any term not longer than ten years. Many a battle of words was fought on the floor of the Legislature before a final school system became fixed and permanent.

Many of the settlers of Indiana came from States which had no public schools, and they were opposed to taxing themselves to educate other people's children. Many of them were uneducated and could see no necessity of a public school system. As late as the year 1850, the census showed that there were in Indiana, nearly seventy-five thousand people over the age of twenty-one who could not read. "Forty thousand voters could not read the ballot they voted, and nearly thirty-five thousand mothers could not teach their children the alphabet."

Since the adoption of the State Constitution in 1816, the subject of common schools has been constantly agitated, and laws relating to them have from time to time been made. About the year 1845, the Legislature passed a law establishing a free school system, with the provision that it should not be enforced except in such counties as adopted it by the vote of the people. So unpopular was the cause of education in those days, that nearly half the counties in the

State rejected it. But the friends of education, although meeting with much to discourage them, continued to agitate the question until they had enlightened the people so that they saw the necessity, as well as advantage, of a good system of public schools.

We have talked so much of the public school system, and the school fund, that perhaps it would be well to see just what is meant by these terms. The word "system" means regular method, or order; and a "school system" means the plan, or order by which the schools are conducted. The word "fund" comes from the Latin, and means bottom, or foundation. The "school fund" of Indiana is the money set apart for the use of schools. It is the foundation of public education. The school system would be of little use were it not for this fund which makes it possible to carry out the plan of education.

The school fund of Indiana is so guarded by the Constitution, which we understand to be the supreme law of the State that it can be used for no other purpose. This fund amounted to \$10,303,184.01 June 1, 1898. This large sum of money has been divided among the ninety-two counties of the State, according to their population, and has been loaned upon real estate so that each one hundred dollars brings in three dollars every six months. This interest, as it is called, is expended for the support of the public schools, and for the year ending June 1, 1898, it amounted to \$608,186.24.

There are two school funds. The oldest is known as the "Congressional Township Fund," because when Congress made the law which enabled Indiana to become a State, it set apart for the support of public schools in every township

the section of land numbered "sixteen." We have seen that a section is a square mile, and that there are thirty-six square miles in a township, so that by this law, one thirty-sixth part of all the land in the State was set apart for public education.

We know how the land was rented or leased, and the proceeds expended in schools, but at that early day, land was so cheap that very few persons would rent land that was not in a condition for tillage, and the revenue for schools was so small, that in 1827, the Legislature asked Congress to give the inhabitants of each township the authority to sell the lands, and make a fund of the proceeds, the interest of which should be devoted to the support of schools.

At the present price of lands, the receipts from such a sale would amount to many millions of dollars; but only \$3,487,806 were received for 655,478 acres of land. This fund which belongs to the townships, is managed by county officers, but they are required to satisfy the Superintendent of Public Instruction that the interest is collected and expended for schools.

The other fund is called the "Common School Fund," and it is derived from various sources. In 1836 Congress found a large amount of money in the Federal treasury for which it had no use. It came to be called "the surplus revenue." This surplus revenue seemed to trouble Congress so much that it decided to loan it to the respective States in proportion to their population, to be paid back when wanted by the United States. That loan has never been called for and never will be. Indiana's share was \$860,254, of which \$537,502 were turned into the common school fund.

Then there is the "County Seminary Fund," which was derived from the sale of two townships of land donated by Congress for the support of seminaries. The proceeds from the sale of this property were turned into the common school fund, under an act of 1852. The county seminary fund received all fines imposed for violation of the penal laws, and this sum, although not large, was also turned over to the common school fund. The receipts from the sale of salt springs in the State, which is known as the "Saline Fund," added \$85,000 to the school fund in 1832.

The most important of the common school funds is known as the "Sinking Fund." What is a "sinking fund?" you would ask. I will try to explain. If a corporation, which may mean a State, or a city, or a company, borrows a large amount of money which is due at the end of a stated term of years, it provides that a certain amount shall be set apart each year, and put at interest, so that the amount of the sums set apart, together with the interest, will be sufficient to pay the debt when it becomes due. This money is called a "sinking fund," probably because when it is large enough, it "sinks" or pays the debt.

In 1834, the Legislature passed a law to establish a State Bank, one-half of the stock to be owned by the State, the remainder by individuals. By this law, the Legislature generously agreed to furnish the money to shareholders who were unable to meet their payments, taking their stock as security. The Legislature could not tell how much money would be needed for this purpose, from year to year, so each session appropriated the sum considered necessary. Often more money was voted than was needed; the remainder was called an "unexpended balance." These balances, with all

the money received from shareholders for the advance made by the State, was made a sinking fund. When the bank was established, the State borrowed \$3,000,000 to pay her portion of the stock, and this sinking fund was used to pay this debt; but it was more than enough, and the balance, which amounted to \$4,255,731.87, was devoted to the common school fund. The children of Indiana owe a debt of gratitude to John Beard, "a plain old farmer from Montgomery county," who managed to have the bill which provided for the payment of this debt, so amended that all that remained of this fund after the loan was paid, should be a permanent fund for common school education. In addition to this sinking fund, the "Bank Tax Fund" yielded a small amount which was appropriated to the common school fund.

The State Constitution of 1851 not only placed the school fund beyond the reach of legislative action, but added to it all lands and estates which shall be forfeited to the State for want of heirs—all lands that have been, or shall hereafter be granted to the State, including the sale of swamp lands granted to the State by Congress, in 1850, after deducting the expense of drainage. The total of all these funds makes a large sum of money, which is increased each year by the fines imposed for violation of the laws. The common school fund, like the congressional school fund, is apportioned among the counties and loaned upon real estate.

In addition to the public schools of Indiana, there are numerous colleges and schools of higher education scattered over the State. The majority of these are denominational, that is, they are established and maintained by some religious denomination. The State has three colleges, or in-

stitutions of learning, for the support of which the Legislature makes appropriations; these are, the State University at Bloomington, chartered as such in 1838; Purdue University, at Lafayette, opened for instruction in the natural sciences, engineering, and agriculture in 1874; and the Indiana State Normal School, which was established in 1865, for the professional training of teachers.

Among the denominational schools may be mentioned that of Earlham College, established and maintained by the Society of Friends, at Richmond, Indiana; DePauw University, Greencastle, which is the great Methodist school of the State; Hanover College, at Hanover, and Wabash College, at Crawfordsville, both of which are under Presbyterian management; Butler University, at Irvington, under the control of the Christian Church, and Franklin College, at Franklin, under Baptist rule. The Catholic Church has a number of schools in the State, among which is that of Notre Dame, a college for boys, at South Bend, and St. Mary's Institute, a school for girls, at Terre Haute. The Rose Polytechnic Institute is also located at Terre Haute. The Culver Military Academy, on Lake Maxinkuckee, in Marshall county, is the only military school in Indiana and one of the largest in the United States.

CHAPTER XXII.

Indianapolis the State Capital.

After Indiana became a State, Congress donated four sections of land, or 2,560 acres, for the establishment of a permanent State Capital, and in January, 1820, the Legisla-

ture appointed nine men as commissioners, to select the location, which could be made from any unsold lands in the State.

Only five of these commissioners accepted the appointment, and in the spring they traversed White River Valley, to find a suitable location for the capital of the State, and very naturally came to different conclusions. They had been instructed by Governor Jennings to meet at the house of William Conner, near Noblesville, in Hamilton county, to decide the matter. This they did on May 22, 1820.

What was said about the different locations proposed, we shall never know, but when it came to a deciding vote, the choice fell upon the east bank of White River, near the mouth of Fall Creek, within a few miles of the geographical center of the State. The spot selected was in the heart of a magnificent forest, on what appeared to be a perfectly level plain. It was many miles from any settlement, the nearest store being at Connersville, sixty miles away. It had little to recommend it except that it was near the center of the State, and was surrounded by a fertile country.

When the Legislature met at Corydon the following winter, the commissioners made their report, and on January 6, 1821, the choice was confirmed. Then came the selection of a name for the new capital. Many were suggested, among them that of Tecumseh, but all were laughed at, and voted down. The name Indianapolis was suggested by Judge Jeremiah Sullivan, of Jefferson county. This, too, was at first laughed at, but it grew in favor as its meaning came to be understood. The Greek word "polis" means city; and "Indiana-polis" means the City of Indiana, which indicates to all the world, its location, and in a manner its

importance; and so it was decided to call the new capital Indianapolis—a name of which we are now very proud.

The same Legislature appointed three commissioners to lay off the town. They were to meet on the first Monday in April, 1821, and were instructed to appoint the necessary assistants, survey and lay off the town, make two maps of the plat, and advertise and sell alternate lots as soon as possible. The proceeds from the sale of lots were to be used as a building fund.

Of the commissioners appointed, only Judge Christopher Harrison came, but he was not deterred from discharging his duty by the failure of the others. He appointed Elias P. Fordham and Alexander Ralston, surveyors, and Benjamin I. Blythe, clerk, and with them proceeded to lay out the new city—a city in name only.

The plat of the new capital was beautiful. It was laid off on a magnificent scale which reflected credit upon Mr. Harrison and his assistants. In the center was a circle containing about four acres. This was surrounded by a street eighty feet wide. Radiating from this circle were four avenues, extending toward the northeast, northwest, southeast and southwest. The first street south of the circle was made one hundred and twenty feet wide and was called Washington street. The remainder of the city, which was a mile square, was laid off in blocks of four hundred and twenty feet, separated by wide streets and alleys. The city was bounded by East, West, North and South streets. Locations were selected for public buildings, which were to be surrounded, or inclosed by beautiful parks.

It was very attractive, and very artistic—on paper. The reality bore but little resemblance to the drawing. The

ground was covered with a heavy growth of native forest trees, with thickets of underwood, which were full of wild game. Through the woods flowed a troublesome stream called "Pogue's Creek," after the man who is said to have first settled here, and who was afterward killed by the Indians. There was little promise of a great city in this wilderness. The surveyors completed their work, however, and the lots were advertised for sale; but there was little demand for them. Money was very scarce, and there was still danger from the Indians, besides the locality was very unhealthy. The few families who had settled there, were stricken with chills and fever, a disease which continued to visit them at stated seasons for many years.

Washington street was but an opening cut through the woods, full of stumps, heaps of logs and tangled brush, and so grown up in underwood that it was impossible to see from one side to the other, and very difficult to cross it. Other streets were invisible; sidewalks were not thought of. There was very little, indeed, to induce people to come to the city that was yet to be carved out of the woods.

But with all these disadvantages, a few settlers came, and in 1822, there were thirty or forty dwellings, mostly built of logs, a few shops and about five hundred inhabitants. The nearest postoffice was at Connorsville, and a man was employed by the citizens to carry the mail from that place. In 1822 the first postoffice was established. One day in April, a young man covered with mud, came riding through the woods at a gallop, blowing a horn. He carried the first United States mail to Indianapolis. His arrival had been expected and the entire population turned out to welcome him. He dismounted from his horse, his saddle-bags were

opened, and found to contain about a dozen letters. It was a great day for the capital city.

About the same time the postoffice was established, the first newspaper made its appearance. It was called *The Gazette*, and was published about every two weeks, or whenever the editor could find enough news to fill it. The Legislature donated ground and appropriated money to build a court house which was to be used by the General Assembly until a State House should be built. The trees were cut down and cleared from the ground where now stands Marion County Court House; the building was begun and finished in time for the meeting of the General Assembly in 1825. A jail was also built out of hewn logs. In November, 1824, the State Capital was removed from Corydon to Indianapolis. The books and other State property were brought in a wagon, and it required ten days to make the journey, a distance of one hundred and twenty-five miles.

The Legislature met for the first time in the new capital, January, 1825, and continued to hold its annual sessions in the court house for ten years. The House of Representatives met on the first floor, the Senate up-stairs.

In the original plan of the city, the "circle" was intended as a place for the Governor's residence, and for many years it was called "The Governor's Circle." The Legislature made an appropriation for the purpose of erecting a house in the center of the grounds, and ordered that the Governor's Circle be inclosed by an "elegant and tasteful rail fence;" but it was soon seen that it was not an appropriate place for a residence, and the building was never completed; it was used for various purposes, and for many years was occupied by Judge Isaac Blackford as office and sleeping rooms, then

torn down, and the Governor's Circle was used as a pasture for cows. Not until 1867, was it properly enclosed, trees planted, walks made and its name changed to "Circle Park." This name it retained until the erection of the present magnificent monument, of which we shall have more to say.

The idea of providing a house for the family of the Governor was not abandoned, and in 1839 a spacious residence situated in the midst of large and beautiful grounds on the northwest corner of Market and Illinois streets was purchased and used for this purpose. After a time, it came to be considered an unhealthful location, because of its defective drainage. The wife of Governor Whitcomb died there, as did also the first and second wife of Governor Wright. Other families suffered ill health while there, and on this account, Governor Morton removed his family to the Bates House, in 1864, and the Governor's residence was sold. The place where it stood is now filled with business blocks.

There were no bridges across White River until 1834; at the foot of Washington street, was a ferry boat which was used to carry people across the river. There was much more water in the streams than there is now, and the citizens cherished the hope that White River could be made navigable for boats as far as Indianapolis; indeed, a little steamer named the "Robert Hanna," did arrive during a period of high water, to the great delight of the inhabitants, and plans were proposed to improve the river, but were found impracticable, and were finally abandoned.

A stage route was opened from Madison to Indianapolis in 1828, over the Michigan road, and was afterward continued to Michigan City. This opened communication with

the outer world and the arrival of the first stage coach was an occasion of great rejoicing.

In 1831, it began to be felt that the State could afford a capitol building, and the General Assembly took steps in this direction. The forest trees which grew where the present State House stands, were cut down and burned, the rubbish cleared away and a stone building two hundred feet long and one hundred feet wide was begun the following year, and completed in 1835. It was considered a very fine building and people came for many miles to see it. The ground about it was elevated, and locust and other rapidly growing trees took the place of the grand old oaks and poplars that had been cut down and destroyed. The little city in the woods struggled along without very rapid growth, visited by occasional floods and wind storms and besieged regularly by chills and fever at certain seasons of the year, until the coming of the Madison Railroad, October 1, 1847.

The arrival of the first train in Indianapolis was witnessed by thousands of people from the towns and country around, many of whom traveled long distances on horse-back, to be present on this great occasion. The most of them had never seen the cars, and could not be made to believe that a locomotive could actually travel at so great a speed as twenty miles an hour. This train brought many excursionists from Franklin, and other points, who united with the citizens in celebrating the occasion. There was also a circus in town that day, and this, too, joined in a general procession, and the forest city witnessed such a scene as it will never witness again. Governor Whitcomb made a speech from the top of a car, and at night the town was "brilliantly" illuminated.

The Madison Railroad Company built a depot on South street, east of Pennsylvania street; this caused some dissatisfaction because it was "too far out of town;" by and by, when other roads came, a union depot was built where now stands the elegant Union Station.

From the completion of the first railroad, the town began to grow very rapidly. In 1849 the population was estimated at 6,500; other railroads were built centering here, and the country town began to put on "city airs." Churches, theatres and school-houses increased in number; business blocks were built; the streets were lighted by gas; handsome residences were erected, and there was a steady growth in wealth and population, which has continued until the present time.

In 1864, the first street car track was laid on Illinois street north of the Union Depot. The first car, which was drawn by horses, was driven by the Mayor of the city of Indianapolis, with the city officers as passengers. In 1877 the Legislature passed a law authorizing the erection of a new State House. The old building was torn away and the present magnificent Capitol erected. It was completed in 1888, at a cost of \$1,980,969.

And so the city has continued to develop; electric street cars have taken the place of the old horse, or mule cars; swift, blooded steeds, and the silent bicycle glide over miles and miles of asphalt pavements where once the patient oxen struggled through the mud and mire. Elegant residences have taken the place of log, or frame dwellings; brilliant electric lights make the nights almost as light as day. A monument, the greatest ever erected in honor of the soldiers of any country, stands in the Governor's Circle, where

once the peaceful cows grazed undisturbed. The sickly, muddy town, situated in the heart of the forest in central Indiana has become one of the most beautiful cities in America—a great railroad center, with its commerce reaching beyond the shores of our continent. With a population of but 500 in 1822, it now boasts of 200,000 inhabitants. It is a city of which every “Hoosier” boy and girl may well be proud.

CHAPTER XXIII.

Internal Improvement System—Black Hawk War.

The condition of the settlers continued to improve. More settlements were formed, greater fields were cleared and cultivated, more stock and produce were raised than were used to supply the needs of the settlers; so the farmers began to look about for a market for the surplus produce. The great market place of the country was New Orleans, which could only be reached through the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers.

When a farmer wished to sell his grain or other produce, he took it to some town on the Ohio River, and sent it in barges or flat-boats to New Orleans, and from there it was shipped in sailing vessels to the Eastern States, or to foreign countries. The only way the farmer had to send his produce to this market was by the streams which flow into the Wabash and the Ohio Rivers, and these were so small that they could only be navigated by the smallest boats, during one or two months in the year.

To reach the Ohio River in any way except on horse-back,

was almost an impossibility. The country was badly in need of roads, and other means of transporting produce and of opening communication with other States and towns; for no matter how rich and fertile a country may be, it is of little value without a market for its produce, and it cannot fully develop unless its inhabitants have intercourse with other countries and people.

The roads in early Indiana defy description. Travel other than by water was confined to horse-back riding over the old Indian trails, or blazed road-ways. It is said that Bishop Kemper was nine days in traveling from Indianapolis to Logansport, a distance of little more than a hundred miles.

As early as 1822, Indiana and Illinois together began to form plans to improve the rapids in the Wabash River, below the city of LaFayette, and the following year the Legislatures of these two States discussed the subject of uniting the Wabash and Maumee Rivers by building a canal from one to the other. William Hendricks, who was the second Governor of Indiana, said, in a message to the Legislature, "Let us not lose sight of those great objects to which the means of the State should at some future day be devoted—the navigation of the Falls of the Ohio, the improvement of the Wabash and White Rivers and other streams, and the construction of the National and other roads through the State." James B. Ray, who became Governor in 1825, advocated the same policy, and for more than ten years the people and leading men of Indiana discussed the question of providing by law, for the commencement of a State system of public improvements. Railroads were beginning to be built in the East, and the great Erie Canal had just been

completed, which encouraged the people in their desire to improve the highways and water-ways, that they might provide means of communication and transportation.

Land estimated to be worth over \$1,250,000 was granted to the State by the general government, to aid in building the Erie and Wabash Canal, which was to connect the Wabash River and Lake Erie, and to make a road from Lake Michigan through Indianapolis to Madison, on the Ohio River. In 1830 the State began to construct this road, and two years later, work was begun on the Wabash and Erie Canal. This canal was to begin at some point on the Lower Wabash, or the Ohio River at Evansville, extend across the State and connect with the Erie Canal in the State of Ohio. A portion of the land which the general government had given for the purpose of constructing this canal, was surrendered to Ohio on condition that that State should construct the canal from the Indiana line to Lake Erie.

This work was commenced during Governor Noble's administration in 1832, and thirty-two miles of it placed under contract. During the years 1834 and 1835, the work was rapidly pushed forward; it was begun at the St. Joseph River and was completed to the forks of the Wabash River, in 1835.

The subject of providing for a general system of "internal improvements," as it was called, continued to agitate the minds of the people. Again and again it was brought up in the Legislature, but nothing was done until the year 1836, when a law was passed adopting a magnificent scheme of improving the State. This law provided that eight different works, consisting of pike roads, railroads and canals should be begun and completed without delay; and a Board

of Public Works was created to superintend the work of construction. The people were delighted at the passage of this law. Bonfires were kindled and jollifications held in every county which was to be benefited by the proposed improvements.

But the law was not passed without opposition. There were prudent and cautious men who feared the State might not be able to meet the expense of this great undertaking. Eighteen members of the House of Representatives and about one-third of the Senate voted against the bill; but they became unpopular with the people, who did not doubt the success of the enterprise, and when it came to electing a Governor the following year, John Dumont, a Senator from Switzerland county who was opposed to the State Improvement law, was defeated by David Wallace who favored it.

The financial affairs of the State seemed to be in a sound condition and men were put to work surveying the different roads and canals. The improvements which the law declared should be made were in eight separate divisions: First, the White Water Canal, which extended from White Water River to Lawrenceburg, together with some connecting branches. Second, the Central Canal, to commence at the Wabash and Erie Canal, between Fort Wayne and Logansport, extending by way of Indianapolis and the valley of the West Fork of White River to the junction of the two forks of White River, thence to Evansville and the Ohio River. Third, an extension of the Wabash and Erie Canal, from the mouth of the Tippecanoe River, down the Wabash valley to Terre Haute, thence by way of Eel River to connect with the Central Canal in Knox County. Fourth, a railroad to extend from Madison through Columbus, In-

dianapolis and Crawfordsville, to LaFayette. Fifth, a macadamized turnpike from near Fredericksburg to Vincennes, through Paoli, Mt. Pleasant and Washington. Sixth, a railroad, if practicable after a survey, from Jeffersonville to Crawfordsville, by way of New Albany, Salem, Bedford, Bloomington and Greencastle. If not practicable then a turnpike over the same route to begin at Salem. Seventh, to improve the Wabash River from Vincennes to its mouth. Eighth, a canal, or railroad from the Wabash and Erie Canal near Fort Wayne, to Lake Michigan at, or near Michigan City, by way of Goshen, South Bend and LaPorte.

By this system all parts of the State were to be benefited. The entire length of these roads and canals was 1,285 miles, and it was estimated that the cost would be about \$20,000,000. The Legislature appropriated \$10,000,000, and the State issued bonds to that amount. Contracts for building the canals and roads were let, and the work begun on every department.

The people went wild with excitement. They believed that when these works were completed, the proceeds derived from them would be so great, and so fill the State treasury that it would no longer be necessary to tax the people for the maintenance of the State government, and they confidently looked forward to a time of ease and prosperity. They believed that the value of property would greatly increase, and everybody wanted to get rich by buying and selling land. Land speculation was the rage. When the people had no money they went in debt to buy land and other property, believing that the price would advance, and they would make money by selling later. At no time in the history of Indiana was there so much speculation, and at no time was money so plenty.

✓ The National Road from Richmond to Indianapolis and the Michigan Road from Indianapolis north, were one stream of travel. Every house on these roads became a tavern for the accommodation of the land buyers and adventurers, and so great was the travel that it was difficult to get food for horses, or a place where a tired man might rest; they were often glad to take the puncheon floor of a cabin for a bed. But with all this travel, and with all this money in circulation through the country, a robbery was never heard of, although it was known that almost every settler possessed large sums of money.

But the people who expected such grand results from the internal improvement system, were doomed to disappointment. There were errors in legislation, and there were mistakes made in defining the duties and power of the State Board of Internal Improvements, which caused great dissatisfaction, especially in localities through which the lines of roads and canals did not pass; and although the Governor and the Legislature recommended careful management and strict economy in conducting the work, there was great extravagance and waste. After a struggle of several years in which but 281 miles of the proposed 1,285 were finished, and a debt of many millions of dollars incurred the entire scheme fell through.

There were several causes which helped to produce this failure—the greatest in the history of the State. Among them were unwise legislation, extravagance in managing the funds, mistakes in organizing the State Board of Internal Improvement, and the great financial distress which swept over the United States in 1837; but perhaps one of the greatest causes of the failure of the scheme was the coming of railroads.

Contracts for building the public works in Indiana had been made and a part of the work done on all of them. The White Water Canal was opened for navigation from Lawrenceburg to Connersville; the Madison Railroad was finished to Griffith's Station, near Elizabethtown. The cost of constructing the roads and canals had been far greater than was estimated. The proceeds from the sale of the canal lands did not meet the expectation, and when the panic of 1837 came, it was impossible to borrow money and the State was almost bankrupt and its credit almost ruined.

The contractors on the public works suspended operations and finally abandoned their contracts. This caused great distress, and not only threw hundreds of laborers out of employment, but left them without pay for work already done. The State was without means of paying the debt it owed; it could not even pay the interest on the debt, and was forced to surrender to some of its creditors, large tracts of land and some of the works that had been begun, for one-half the indebtedness, and issue new bonds for the remainder. It was many years before the people were relieved of this great burden of debt, which amounted to several millions of dollars.

In order to provide the means for paying the contractors on the public works, and others to whom the State was indebted, the Legislature authorized an issue of State treasury notes to the amount of \$1,500,000. For a short time these notes passed for their full value, but in 1842, when there was about \$1,000,000 of this currency in circulation among the people, it suddenly depreciated in value more than forty per cent.

The financial condition of the country from 1839 to

1843, can scarcely be understood by those who did not witness it. Panic spread everywhere, and affected all classes of people. Probably those who suffered most were farmers and day laborers. All produce had to be sold at prices exceedingly low, or bartered for other necessities. In some cases, oats sold for six cents per bushel, chickens for fifty cents per dozen, eggs for three cents per dozen and other produce at corresponding prices. Money was as scarce as prices were low, and wages were lower still. It was difficult for many families to keep from starving.

Work on the public improvements began while Noah Noble was Governor of Indiana, and met with failure during the administration of Governor Wallace. In the course of the years 1841 to 1843, numerous plans were adopted by the Legislature to relieve the State of the burden of debt which had been imposed upon it. The State Board of Internal Improvements was abolished and the works placed in the hands of commissioners and agents, and provision was made for disposing of any or all of the works to private companies. It was estimated that to complete all the works would cost the sum of \$19,914,244. In 1841, the public debt of the State amounted to \$15,088,146. For several years Indiana could not pay the interest on this enormous debt.

During the administration of Governor Whitcomb, the Legislature provided for the adjustment of the debt due those who held State bonds, and for the completion of the Wabash and Erie Canal to Evansville. Before the opening of this canal, the people of the northern portion of Indiana, or the Upper Wabash country, as it was called, were dependent upon Indian agencies for the disposal of their produce,

and notes given in payment for debt were almost always made payable at either the Miami or Pottawattamie agency, just as notes now given are made payable at a certain bank. This custom continued until the Wabash and Erie Canal and the Michigan Road were built, which opened up trade from other sources. The principal productions of the country were grain, vegetables, hogs and other farm produce, furs, pelts and a kind of root called ginseng, which was used for medicine. This latter commodity grew in large quantities in northern Indiana.

✓ The Michigan Road originally ran from Michigan City to Indianapolis, and thence to Madison, through Shelby, Decatur, Ripley and Jefferson Counties. It was built by the authority of the State Legislature of 1830, and was paid for with the proceeds from the sale of lands donated to the government by the chiefs and warriors of the Pottawattamie Indians for this purpose. A treaty with this tribe caused all the land north of the Wabash River to be brought into market, except the land which had been reserved for them.

In the beginning, this road was but an opening through the forest of noble trees, that stood like a wall on either side of it. The mud was so deep, and travel so difficult, that fifteen or twenty miles was considered a good day's journey. Wagons could not be used upon it; there were no bridges nor ferry-boats across the streams and only those on horseback could travel the road and ford the rivers.

The Wabash and Erie Canal was to have been the principal channel of commerce for about one-third of the State of Indiana, and a part of Illinois. Extending from Evansville to the Erie Canal, in Ohio, by way of LaFayette, Logansport, and Fort Wayne, it embraced about forty counties

in the State. It was the largest artificial channel for commercial purposes in America. There was great rejoicing when it was completed to the Wabash River. When the waters of Lake Erie united with the Mississippi through this channel, the event was celebrated at Fort Wayne by the booming of cannon, unfurling of flags and banners, and by patriotic speeches and illumination at night.

During the 1839, boats were run daily from Logansport to Fort Wayne, a distance of about eighty miles, and it was completed and used from Lake Erie to LaFayette, a distance of about two hundred and fifteen miles.

But this great channel was a disappointment to the people who expected so much from it. It did not pay expenses and interest on the cost. This failure was due to the coming of railroads, built by the authority of the State, and covering almost the same region of country through which the canal passes, thus taking away its business. It was finally placed in the hands of trustees, together with its lands and revenues, as a security for one-half the State's debt.

The canal, which was once the pride and hope of the people, is now a vast waste, abandoned and neglected, a monument to its own past greatness; and while this magnificent enterprise lies in ruins, its enemies, the railroads, extend through almost every portion of our State, creating wealth and prosperity on every hand, while their powerful engines whistle defiantly along its banks, and whirl triumphantly across it.

But it is to the railroads, which now form a network of iron over the State, that the enormous growth in wealth and population of Indiana is mainly due. Without them, the country, except in the vicinity of the rivers and lakes, would

yet be a wilderness. Not only have they opened vast regions for settlement, but they have distributed the wealth of the country, and made land hundreds of miles from the principal water courses as valuable as any in the State.

When the internal improvement system failed in 1839, the only work that had reached Indianapolis was the Central Canal. The sections above to Noblesville, and below to Martinsville were so far advanced that it would have required a comparatively small amount of money and labor to have made a complete channel of water communication for over forty-five miles through the center of the State.

But when the news of the State's bankruptcy overtook it, the workmen abandoned it; the spade was left in the dirt, the wheel-barrow on the plank, and not another stroke of work was done. Nor has anything been done since, except to repair it and preserve the water power. When the short section was finished from Indianapolis to Broad Ripple, it was opened by an excursion. Not much traffic was conducted by means of the canal, however; a quantity of wood came down it occasionally, and some loads of grain and lumber, but its chief use has been a mill-race and for water purposes.

In 1833, while Noah Noble was Governor of Indiana, and during the period of excitement over the internal improvement system, the settlements in the northwestern part of the State were much alarmed by the report of the hostile acts of the Sac Indians, who, under the leadership of the chief, "Black Hawk," were doing much mischief in northern Illinois. Governor Noble sent two detachments of the militia to the locality, and small detachments of riflemen were stationed at different points among the threatened set-

lements. Black Hawk and his band, however, did not invade Indiana, and were finally subdued by the United States troops and the Illinois militia.

CHAPTER XXIV.

The Old National Road—Mexican War.

✓ The National Road, sometimes called the Cumberland Pike, is the only highway of its kind ever built by the Government of the United States. After the Americans had won their independence and established a government of their own, the United States Congress met from year to year, first in Philadelphia, then in New York, and finally in Washington. It was found to be very difficult for Congressmen who lived in remote districts to reach the National Capital on account of the condition of the roads, or rather, in some cases, for want of any kind of roads. So these lawmakers soon began to talk about roads and road improvements.

In 1806, when Thomas Jefferson was President of the United States, a plan was proposed which resulted in the building of the great thoroughfare of which we speak. It began at Cumberland, Maryland, and was a continuation of the Cumberland road, connecting that city with Baltimore, Md. From Cumberland it extended westward over the Alleghany Mountains, passing through the States of Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, and was to have reached the Mississippi River at a point between St. Louis and the mouth of the Illinois River. The entire length was

eight hundred miles. It was a magnificent plan, and had it been completed would have been the longest highway in America. It was built under the direction of a Board of Commissioners, appointed by the President of the United States.

At each session of Congress, large sums of money were appropriated to build and keep it in repair. After it was surveyed, the work was pushed forward as rapidly as possible, but it was a great undertaking to build eight hundred miles of road through an unsettled country—through forests, swamps and all kinds of places, and it was many years before it reached the eastern boundary of Indiana. It was first built of stone, and afterward macadamized. Strong stone bridges, beautifully arched, were built across the rivers and streams, and each mile was marked by an iron post. About every fifteen miles toll-houses of brick or stone were erected, with strong iron gates hung on massive iron posts, which could be closed against the traveler who refused to pay the "toll," or fee, which was charged for the use of the road.

The road was built in sections and as soon as any portion of it was finished it was opened to the public. In this way it slowly crept westward over the mountains and through the forests, unrolling itself like a great serpent. As it extended in length, the travel increased until it became the great national thoroughfare between the East and the West, bringing the people together in social and business relations. Over it the mails were carried, merchandise transported, and all kinds of business transacted. It was a great national artery throbbing with a ceaseless tide of humanity.

Many of the most illustrious statesmen and heroes of the early history of our nation passed over it, to and from the

Capital, at the opening and closing of Congress. Among them were Andrew Jackson, William Henry Harrison, Henry Clay, James K. Polk, Martin Van Buren, Zachary Taylor, General Sam Houston, Crittenden, Shelby, Allen, Scott, Butler, Davy Crocket, and many others whose names are familiar to you. Jenny Lind, the sweet "Swedish Nightingale," traveled over the road in a chartered coach with her manager, P. T. Barnum, from her tour in the West.

One of the greatest promoters of the road was Henry Clay, the United States Senator from Kentucky, although it is said that Mr. Gallatin, of Pennsylvania, was the first to suggest it. Mr. Clay fought for the appropriations to build and repair it in every session of Congress for many years, and was one of its strongest advocates. He was a great favorite with the people along the line, many of whom knew him personally.

Did you ever travel in a stage coach? The coaches used on the National Road were magnificent affairs for those times, although you would doubtless think it a very slow way indeed, to travel, in these days of limited express trains. They were handsomely painted on the outside, and lined with soft plush on the inside. They contained three seats and were capable of carrying nine passengers inside, with one beside the driver. The seat with the driver was very desirable in fine weather. It was worth a journey to see these gaily painted coaches ascend a steep hill, or glide over a level stretch of country, drawn by four strong horses decked with bright harness, with a number of small bells attached to a high iron frame fastened above the collar; or, to see it dash down a hillside, the driver flourishing his

long whip in a manner which became the importance of his position. It was indeed a sight worth remembering to see it enter a town or post station. The arrival of the stage coach was an important event in the daily life of the villagers along the line of the National Road, and all the idlers for miles around assembled to witness it. From afar the sound of the bugle announced its approach; soon the brilliant equipage could be seen flashing in the sunlight; in a twinkling the horses dashed up to the station where a groom stood waiting with fresh ones. Scarcely had they stopped when the driver cast his reins to the groom who quickly unhitched the horses, put the fresh ones in their places, and tossed the reins back to the driver, who had not left his high seat; another long blast from the trumpet, mingled with the jingling of bells, another flourish of the long whip, and they were off at full speed, to the great admiration of the lookers-on. It was a sight to behold!

The most of the horses used were fine animals, and they as well as the coaches belonged to a company. They traveled day and night with so much regularity that the farmers along the road knew the time of day by their passage. There were great numbers of these coaches; sometimes as many as twenty could be counted in line on some portions of the road. The mail coaches were somewhat different from the regular passenger coach, but they, too, carried travelers. In addition to the stage coaches, there was an almost constant stream of wagons loaded with all kinds of merchandise, coming and going over the road, besides large droves of horses, mules, cattle, hogs and sheep, on the way to eastern markets. It looked like one was nearing a great city to see all this travel.

There were many comfortable hotels, or taverns, as they were called, situated along the road, with gaily painted sign-boards fastened to heavy posts. Each of these taverns was provided with a wagon-yard, into which wagons and horses were driven at night. The horses were protected from the weather by heavy blankets. Six horses were driven to each wagon, and they were called "line teams." They were stationed along the road at a distance of fifteen miles, and were exchanged like stage horses. Feed troughs were always carried suspended from the rear of the wagons and taken down and fastened to the wagon tongue, three on each side, while the horses ate, standing with their heads together.

These teams also belonged to a company, and they took the place of the freight cars of to-day. The wagons were covered with heavy canvas and loaded with all kinds of merchandise from the East. On their return trip they carried the produce from the West, just as the freight cars do. Sometimes the farmers would put their teams on the road in the busy season, when freights were high, but this was looked upon with ill favor by the company's men.

The drivers of the line teams were called "wagoners." They used a long whip with a thick, hard handle, tapering to a point and ending in a silken cracker. Many of them owned fierce bull-dogs, which they tied behind the wagons; they carried their beds rolled up in the front part of the wagon, and at night spread them in a circle on the floor of the tavern, before the large open fire-place. Some of the wagoners were musical, and when they gathered at night around the tavern fire, they sang songs, played the "fiddle" and had a merry time of it. But they were up and off at

break of day the next morning. There were thousands of these wagoners; some of them were on the road for many years, and were well known to the people living along the line. Many of them were men of intelligence and were respected by those who knew them. When the railroads took away their business, many of these stage drivers and wagoners went West, and continued their calling; others took up other occupations in the vicinity of the old pike.

Beside the stage drivers and wagoners, there was the "postillion." This was a groom stationed with two horses at the foot of long, steep hills, whose duty it was to hitch his horses to the coaches, or wagons, and help pull the load up the hill, riding a horse the while. He then unhitched the horses, returned to his station, and was ready to assist the next team. There were many of these postillions on the National Road.

The money used in the days of the "old pike" was different from ours. The smallest coin was the copper cent; the next was the silver five-cent piece, and a coin worth six and a fourth cents; this was called a "fippeny bit," or a "fip." Then there was the twelve-and-a-half-cent piece, called a "levy," and the silver dime, quarter and half dollar. In those days a good meal could be had for a "levy," or twelve and a half cents.

People seeking homes were eager to locate near the National Road, and there was a kind of distinction between the "pike folks" and those living farther back, like there sometimes is between the city and country people. As the boys along the rivers all wish to become pilots, or river men, and the boys living near railroads are ambitious to become railroad engineers, or conductors, so the boys along the National Road wanted to become stage drivers and wagoners.

It was a rollicking, jolly sort of life, with not too much hard work, and the "line men" were a source of envy to the pioneer boys who had never been beyond their native woods, and who longed to see the world to which that magnificent road led.

In the year 1829, when James B. Ray was Governor of our State, Congress made an appropriation for opening the National Road through Indiana, and each year more money was appropriated, until 1838. The road was surveyed through Indiana and many contracts for building it were let. The land along the line was eagerly bought up, and settlers found their way to it through the forest, built their cabins and opened their farms in the expectation that the government would soon complete its construction, and they would have easy access to their neighbors and a ready market for their produce. The work was fitfully prosecuted for ten years; some portions of it were completed and in use; other sections were no more than openings through the woods, and in some seasons of the year were almost impassable. The bridge across White River at Indianapolis was begun in 1830 and completed in 1834.

When the internal improvement system failed in 1839, work on the National Road was abandoned, and for ten years it was left to fall into ruins for want of repair. This was a great disappointment to the settlers who had expected so much from it, and to the towns to which its promised greatness had been an advantage.

In 1848 the National Government donated to Indiana that portion of the road lying within the State, together with all its improvements, and the State Legislature granted charters to four companies to complete it. A part of it was made a plank road; other sections were macadamized, but

before it was finished to the western borders of the State, the railroads came and took away its business, and, although it became, and is still, a great thoroughfare, it never reached that degree of greatness that made the eastern portion of the road so famous.

The first large town in Indiana through which the National Road passes is Richmond. It forms the principal street of that city, which is called Main Street. It then passes through Centerville, which for years was the county seat of Wayne County, afterward removed to Richmond. Leaving Centerville, it passes through Cambridge City, then forms the principal street of Dublin, which is called Cumberland Street. Continuing its westward course, it passes through Greenfield, to Indianapolis, where it becomes Washington Street, passes westward to Terre Haute and loses itself amid the prairies of Illinois. The State turned over different parts of it to corporations which maintained it. It is now owned by counties and operated as part of the free gravel road system of Indiana.

THE MEXICAN WAR.

It was while James Whitcomb was Governor of Indiana that what is known as the Mexican War occurred, and because Indiana took a part in it, I will briefly relate the cause of the war.

Texas was a part of Mexico; but, attracted by the fertility of its soil and its advantages for cattle-raising, a large number of Americans had emigrated to that territory. By 1830 these American settlers were a majority of its inhabitants. By race, manner of living and opinions, these settlers were so different from the Mexicans that they could not live under Mexican rule. So, in March, 1836, Texas declared its

independence of Mexico, and on April 10th of that year, fought in defense of this independence at the battle of San Jacinto. Their victory was complete; Santa Anna, the President of Mexico, was captured, and was forced to sign a treaty acknowledging the independence of Texas. As this treaty was extorted from a prisoner, the Mexican government would not ratify it.

The Texans were anxious for annexation to the United States, but it was not until 1845 that Congress passed a law annexing Texas. The western boundary of Texas was in dispute, so the American army was ordered to seize the disputed territory. The Mexicans attacked and captured a small body of American dragoons; this was followed by two battles in quick succession. Congress declared war, and President Polk called for 50,000 volunteers.

At this time the Indiana militia had been abandoned, and there were few men in the State who had had military training; the officers, therefore, were mainly selected from among the volunteers. When the call for troops was made, Indiana promptly enlisted five regiments, numbering 4,585 men, and sent them to the assistance of the government. The first of these regiments was commanded by Colonel James P. Drake. Henry S. Lane, who afterward became Governor of Indiana and represented the State in the United States Senate, was made Lieutenant-Colonel. Robert H. Milroy, afterward a Brigadier-General in the war for the Union, was Captain in this regiment, and General Lew Wallace, whose name is a household word in every Indiana home, was Second Lieutenant.

The Second Regiment was commanded by Colonel Joseph Lane, soon promoted to Brigadier-General and afterward Governor of Oregon and United States Senator from

that State. Among the officers serving in this regiment, who afterward became Generals in the civil war, were Lovell H. Rosseau, W. T. Spicely and W. L. Sanderson. James H. Lane, afterward Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana and also a General in the Union army, commanded the Third Regiment. Colonel Willis A. Gorman commanded the Fourth Regiment. In this regiment another distinguished General in the Union army, Ebenezer Dumont, served as Lieutenant.

The Fifth Regiment was commanded by Colonel James H. Lane, after the expiration of the term of enlistment of the Third Regiment. In this regiment General Mahlon D. Manson served as Captain. General Manson was afterward elected Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana.

Among others who afterward became officers in the Federal army and honored citizens of Indiana are: General George F. McGinnis, Major James A. Cravens, General Nathan Kimball, Major W. W. McCoy, Lieutenant-Colonel Allen May, Colonel W. A. Bowles, Captain David Shunk and Captain William W. Lowe.

Indiana regiments in the Mexican war lost about fifty men in battle and two hundred and eighteen by disease. The fighting began in May, 1846, and ended in October, 1847, but the volunteers were not in the service more than a year.

The war was a series of victories for the United States. The Mexicans made what terms they could. They were obliged to yield up Texas, and sold New Mexico and California to the United States; for this the government paid about \$18,000,000, but received in return 890,000 square miles of territory, or enough to make nearly twenty-five States as large as Indiana.

CHAPTER XXV.

The Constitutional Convention of 1850-51.

As times changed and the country developed, it began to be felt that the State had outgrown the Constitution. The circumstances of the people had greatly changed since the formation of the State government. Great progress had been made in population, wealth, commerce and manufactures, and this made a change in the organic law almost necessary.

Reforms, or changes in the government of a people, are always the outgrowth of their own experience, and the people of Indiana seriously considered the wisdom of revising the Constitution of 1816 so as to meet the demands of the times and circumstances.

To determine the wishes of the people in the matter, the Legislature of 1848-49, passed a law submitting the question of calling a convention to alter, revise or amend the Constitution, to the people themselves. The majority of the citizens voted to call a Constitutional Convention, and an election was held for the purpose of choosing men as delegates to this convention.

The time selected for forming a new Constitution was fortunate. It was during a period which has been called the "era of good feeling in Indiana." The line between the two great political parties, which were called the Whig and the Democratic, was not very distinctly marked. The people, appreciating the importance of the work to be done, put aside all party and personal spirit and selected capable and honest men to serve as delegates. Few if any counties

elected a full delegation of the same political belief, and citizens who were unknown in politics, but were prominent in other pursuits were chosen and the most trusted men sent as representatives to the convention. In this the people were wise. But little party feeling was shown and political discussions were in a great measure abstained from, and the efforts of the delegates united to create for the people of Indiana a Constitution which could meet their expectations and their needs.

No more important body of men ever assembled in the State of Indiana than that which met in the Hall of Representatives, in the old State Capitol in Indianapolis, October 7th, 1850, to revise the Constitution of the State. There were one hundred and fifty of them, and they came from all settled parts of the State. Some of them traveled for three or four days, over the worst possible roads, to reach the capital.

The most of the delegates were in the prime of life, only one man being under twenty-five years of age, and one over sixty-six. Not all of them were natives of Indiana; indeed, but thirteen of them were born within the State, for you will remember that the country was still very new and that but few settlers had lived here long enough to rear families to manhood and womanhood. So the greater number of the delegates to the convention were citizens of the State by adoption.

They were all natives of the United States except six. Three of these, James Dick, G. H. Ballingall and Robert Dale Owen, were natives of Scotland, and three, Allen Hamilton, Dixon Milligan and Beattie McClelland, were born in Ireland.

Of the remainder, seventy-four were born in Southern States and seventy in Northern States. Twenty-two were born in Kentucky, nineteen in Virginia, seventeen in Ohio, sixteen in New York, thirteen in Indiana, ten in North Carolina, seven in Tennessee, four in Massachusetts, four in South Carolina, two in Connecticut, one in Delaware, one in New Hampshire, one in Vermont and one in New Jersey. In all, sixteen States and two foreign countries were represented.

Their occupations in life were varied. Sixty-two of them were farmers, thirty-nine were lawyers, sixteen were physicians, eleven were merchants and traders, two were teachers, two were manufacturers, two were surveyors, one was a tanner, one a carpenter, one a millwright, one a bricklayer, one a county recorder, one an accountant, one a miller, one an editor and one a banker. The occupation of the others is not known. In politics, ninety-four were Democrats, fifty-three were Whigs, one called himself a Conservative, one a Free-Soiler and one an Independent.

Although representing different States and countries, and different political parties, the people had been so careful in the choice of delegates that the convention was composed of some of the best men in the country—those who might be called “representative men.” This was not only shown by the wisdom of their work, but also by the high places which most of them continued to occupy in the confidence and esteem of the people.

Three of them, Schuyler Colfax, Thomas A. Hendricks and William H. English, were afterward chosen by their respective parties as candidates for Vice-President of the United States, and the first two were elected. Two of them,

John Pettit and Thomas A. Hendricks, were sent to represent the State in the United States Senate. Eleven were elected to the United States House of Representatives; they were Schuyler Colfax, Robert Dale Owen, David Kilgore, James Lockhart, Smith Miller, Thomas Smith, William S. Holman, Thomas A. Hendricks, William McKee Dunn, James B. Foley and William H. English. Mr. Colfax served as Speaker of the House of Representatives for several sessions.

Three of the delegates, David Wallace, Thomas A. Hendricks and Alvin P. Hovey, became Governors of Indiana, and one, Samuel Hall, served as Lieutenant-Governor. Three, Horace P. Biddle, Alvin P. Hovey and John Pettit, were elected Judges of the Supreme Court, while two others, John B. Niles and John B. Howe, were nominated by their parties for that position. Twelve others were elected judges of other State courts. Three, James Borden, Robert Dale Owen and Alvin P. Hovey, were appointed United States ministers to foreign countries. Two, Alvin P. Hovey and Robert H. Milroy, became distinguished Generals in the war for the Union. One of them, William McKee Dunn, for many years held the important position of Judge Advocate-General of the United States army.

Michael G. Bright was agent of the State, Horace E. Carter was Reporter of the Supreme Court, John P. Dunn and Joseph Ristine were elected Auditor of State, William R. Noffsinger and John I. Morrison each served as Treasurer of State. Many others held important places of trust, and it is not recorded that any one of them was ever accused of a dishonorable act in public life, or of violating the laws of the country.

This distinguished body of men met in the old State House on that October day in 1850, thirty-four years after the first Constitutional Convention met at Corydon. They were called to order by Charles H. Test, who was then Secretary of State. The Hon. George W. Carr, from Lawrence County, who had served as Speaker of the House of Representatives for the two previous sessions, was elected President of the convention, and William H. English was elected Secretary. Robert M. Evans, of Franklin County; Harmon G. Barkwell, of Perry County, and George L. Sites, of Allen County, were chosen Assistant Secretaries.

The names of the delegates were called by the Secretary of State. They all stood while the oath to support the Constitution of the United States and to perform their duties as delegates to the convention was administered to them by the Hon. Isaac Blackford, then senior Judge of the Supreme Court of Indiana. The oath was then administered to the Secretary and his assistants, and other necessary officers were appointed.

The convention continued to meet from day to day, from the 7th of October, 1850, until February 10th, 1851, when, having finished the work of forming a new Constitution, they dissolved the convention by a final adjournment, having been in session for one hundred and twenty-seven days, or more than four months.

The convening of the State Legislature in December made it necessary to change the place of meeting, and the remaining sessions of the convention were held in the Masonic Hall, then just completed, which stood where the Masonic Temple is now situated, on Washington Street.

The delegates were paid three dollars per day for their

services, and allowed the usual legislative mileage. The entire cost of the convention was \$85,683.05. This was the total expense of a body composed of one hundred and fifty members in session one hundred and twenty-seven days. The Legislatures of to-day have the same number of members, and for the regular sessions of sixty-one days now cost nearly \$100,000 per session, and sometimes more than that amount.

The old Constitution of 1816 was taken as a basis for the new. Each section was studied, discussed and altered to suit the needs of the people. Many important subjects received the attention of the delegates, and were discussed from every standpoint before a decision was reached. Among these was the length of the term of State officers and their eligibility to re-election. The question of negro slavery, and a resolution to abolish the grand jury system, were warmly debated.

A resolution to prohibit negroes from immigrating to the State and to prevent them from holding property in Indiana was introduced, and the sentiment was strongly in favor of its adoption. The Society of Friends, at Dublin, Wayne County, presented a memorial praying that all distinction of color be excluded from the Constitution. The delegates were not in sympathy with this proposition, and no action was taken upon it.

The questions of capital punishment, or punishment by death, and imprisonment for debt, were discussed, and a long and heated argument was caused by the introduction of a clause to enlarge and increase the rights of women to hold property in their own name.

The State banking system and the public school system

claimed much attention; but perhaps no part of the Constitution caused so much discussion, or was more warmly debated than the thirteenth article, which provided that no negro or mulatto should come into the State or settle in it, after the adoption of the Constitution. The question of owning slaves in the State had been forever settled by Congress in the ordinance for the government of the Northwestern Territory, in 1787, but the feeling against the negro was very strong in Indiana, and, although there were many persons who were willing that they should settle in the State, the majority were strongly opposed to it.

One of the arguments in favor of the thirteenth article was that Kentucky had recently adopted a Constitution making it unlawful for any free negro or mulatto to live within the State, under penalty of imprisonment, and that, being compelled to leave the State, they would naturally cross the river into Indiana, and unable to support themselves, would become public charges.

The argument against the adoption of this article was that the free negroes, being compelled to leave the State in which they lived, must have some place to go, and that in the name of humanity, they should not be driven from our borders. "If this article is adopted," they argued, "what is the free negro to do? If he remains in Kentucky, he must be put in prison for the crime of being free. If he attempts to step upon Indiana soil, he must be driven back, and any one who treats him with human kindness, or gives him employment, shall be fined as an offender against the laws of the State." The subject was of so great importance that the convention determined to leave it to be decided by a vote of the people themselves.

Another subject which claimed the attention of the delegates related to the State banking system. It was proposed to give the Legislature the right to make a general banking law, and that it also be given the power to extend the charter of the State Bank of Indiana for five years, and that the profit from the funds of the State which were invested in the bank be devoted to common school purposes. On this question arose one of the most exciting debates of the session. The proposition was defeated; and the Legislature was authorized to incorporate banks with branches.

One of the most important acts of this convention was the provision to establish a common school system. While the old Constitution favored free schools and liberal education, it made no provision for their establishment; all was confusion and uncertainty. The Legislature was simply authorized to act as soon as "circumstances would permit."

The Committee on Education, of which the Hon. John I. Morrison was chairman, brought order out of this chaos, and by its wisdom and tact succeeded in incorporating in the new Constitution an article which provided for the establishment of a general and uniform system of common schools.

A spirited and interesting debate arose on the proposition of Robert Dale Owen concerning the rights of married women to hold property. The proposition was not adopted as a part of the Constitution, but was afterward introduced by Mr. Owen into the Legislature and made a law.

After the delegates had agreed upon the Constitution, it was printed, and copies sent among the people that they might study and decide whether or not they wished it adopted as the Constitution, or fundamental law of the State. After they had had time to consider it, an election

was held, and those who were in favor of its adoption voted "For the Constitution;" those who opposed it voted "Against the Constitution." There were 109,319 votes for and 26,755 against it, so you see that the Constitution was adopted by a very large majority.

The thirteenth article, which provided that negroes and mulattoes should be excluded from the State, was voted on separately. This vote stood 109,976 for and 21,066 against the article; this prohibited the negro from living within the State.

So the Constitution became the law, and took effect on November 1, 1851, and the first general election under it was held the following year. Under the new Constitution all the offices of the State became vacant the year following its adoption, and the entire State government had to be reorganized.

CHAPTER XXVI.

The First Legislature Under the New Constitution—How Laws are made.

The adoption of the new Constitution made many changes necessary in the statutes, or laws, in order that they might agree with the Constitution, which we understand to be the supreme law of the State. So it was well known that the first Legislature to meet after the adoption of the Constitution was one of unusual importance. In fact, the work of this Legislature was to continue the work which the Constitutional Convention had outlined. As one has beautifully said: "The whole temple of State government, from

spire to foundation stone, had to be taken down, remodeled and built up so as to conform to the new Constitution and the progress and improvements of the age."

Because of the vast amount of work it had to do, this Legislature was not limited in time, as are the other sessions. It met on December 1, 1851, and closed June 15, 1852, having been in session over six months. This was the longest legislative session ever held in Indiana. Many of the men who served in the Constitutional Convention and in former Legislatures were elected to serve in this. It was a very strong body of men. The people realized the importance of doing well the work begun by the Constitutional Convention, and elected men of ability and honest purpose. Many of them were afterward called to serve their State in high places of honor and trust. No Legislature in the history of Indiana ever did more work, or work of a more useful character. Its members applied themselves to strict performance of their duties, and manifested a desire to promote the welfare and interest of the people whom they represented. Many new methods were introduced in legislation, many important changes made in existing laws and some changes, or modifications, made in nearly every statute in the State.

The Constitution of 1851 stands to-day as it was adopted then, with but few changes or modifications. For almost fifty years it has guarded our rights and protected our welfare. When amendments have become necessary, it was not caused by any fault in the Constitution, but from changes of conditions which have come since its adoption. Three amendments have been made, which relate to a change in the condition of the negro race, and were made necessary by the amendments of the Constitution of the

United States. Another amendment was made to make the time of our general elections agree with the time fixed by the Congress of the United States for the election of members to Congress. Another fixed the period of residence in voting precincts, in order to prevent illegal voting; another amendment was made for the purpose of giving the Legislature power to regulate the fees and salaries of public officers. Another changed the language in defining the power of courts; another limited the amount of taxation in cities and towns. In 1873, an amendment was adopted which forever prohibited the State from any liability to pay the Wabash and Erie Canal bonds.

The Constitution of Indiana provides that to enact a law it must first be introduced into the General Assembly by a bill. A bill is the proposed law written out, and it must begin with the words, "Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana." A bill may be introduced by a member of either House, to his branch of the Legislature. It may originate in either the House or the Senate, except bills for raising revenue, which must first be introduced in the House. Either branch of the Legislature may amend any bill that comes from the other branch.

Two-thirds of the members of either House must be present before business can be transacted; this is called a quorum. Each bill must be read on three separate days, unless two-thirds of the members vote to suspend this rule, when it may be read three times the same day. A bill is first read for information, after which it may at once be rejected. (A bill is seldom rejected on the first reading.) If there is no motion to reject, it is referred to an appropriate committee or to a committee of the whole House. If it is

considered of sufficient importance, it may be ordered to be printed.

A committee may "kill" a bill by failing to report upon it until it is too late for consideration. A bill may be reported back to the House with amendments or without amendments, or, with or without recommendations. After a bill has been reported, it goes to the presiding officer's desk and is placed with other reported bills to await its turn. In the order of business it is taken up and read a second time, after which it is ready to be amended, re-committed, or engrossed. If amendments are reported by the committee, they must be acted upon before other amendments are considered. The chief discussions upon the bill take place at this point. It may here be rejected by a motion to strike out the clause "Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Indiana," which is called the enacting clause.

If there are no amendments, or motions to reject, after it is read a second time, the bill is ordered to be engrossed—that is, it is rewritten for the purpose of correcting all errors in spelling, punctuation, etc. If there are amendments, and the same are adopted, they are engrossed as a part of the original bill. A bill may be recommitted, or referred back to the committee, any number of times before ordered to be engrossed. After being engrossed it is referred to the committee on engrossed bills, whose duty it is to compare it carefully with the original and make a report as to the correctness of the engrossment. It is then ready for the third, or final reading.

After the third reading, a vote is taken as to whether the bill shall become a law. The roll-call must show that two-

thirds of the members of the House in which the vote is taken are present, and at least a majority of all the members elected must have voted for the bill before it is declared to have passed. A vote is then taken on the question, "Shall the title of the bill stand as the title of the act?" If no objection is raised it is so ordered without a vote. The clerk of the House in which the bill originated informs the other branch of the Legislature of the passage of the bill, and the engrossed copy, signed by the clerk, is introduced and passes through exactly the same course, except that a bill engrossed in one House is not engrossed in the other. If it is amended, the amendment is engrossed, and with the bill, is returned to the House where it originated. If this branch concurs in the amendment, or accepts it, the bill is ready to be enrolled. If it is not accepted, each House appoints two members to confer together concerning the amendment. This is called a conference committee. If, after this committee reports, the Senate and House fail to agree, the bill is lost. If they agree, and the bill passes both houses, it is ordered to be enrolled by the House in which it originated. After enrollment, it is carefully examined by the committee on enrolled bills, which compares it with the engrossed bill and corrects any errors, and a report is made to both branches of the Legislature, and signed by the Speaker of the House and President of the Senate. After they have signed the bill, it is presented to the Governor for his consideration. The committee then reports its action to the two Houses, and the report is entered on the journal of each House.

If the Governor approves it, he signs the enrolled bill and it becomes a law. He then notifies both the Senate

and the House of his action and files the bill with the Secretary of State, who supervises the printing. If the Governor disapproves the bill he returns it to the House in which it originated with his objections in writing. This is called a veto. The objections of the Governor are entered upon the journal and the bill is at once reconsidered. If a majority of all the members elected to that House, agree to pass the bill, it may be sent, with the Governor's objections, to the other House for reconsideration, and if a majority of all the members of this House approve it, they may pass it over the Governor's veto, and it becomes a law and is deposited with the Secretary of State.

If the Governor does not act upon a bill for three days (excepting Sundays) after it has been presented to him, it becomes a law unless the Legislature adjourns before its return; in this case it becomes a law, unless the Governor files his objections with the Secretary of State, within five days—which are to be laid before the Legislature at its next session. Bills are not to be presented to the Governor within two days of the final adjournment of the Legislature. Laws do not take effect until they are published by authority, and circulated in the counties of the State, except they are made cases of emergency, when they take effect as soon as passed.

The people who make our laws are called Senators and Representatives, and as we have seen, they are elected by the people of the State. Every six years, an enumeration of all the male inhabitants of the State, over twenty-one years of age, is taken; that is, men are sent from house to house, in the cities, villages and country, to take the name of every one entitled to vote, and the next Legislature takes

this list and divides the State into districts, called "Senatorial Districts," according to population. From each of these districts one or more State Senators are elected. It also divides the State into other districts, with no reference to the Senatorial Districts; these are called "Representative Districts," and from these one or more Representatives are elected, according to the population. This division of the State for election purposes is called "apportionment."

The State Constitution provides for fifty Senators who are elected to serve for a term of four years; one-half of them to be elected every two years, that there may always be experienced men in the Senate at every session of the Legislature. Before a man can be elected Senator he must be at least twenty-five years old; he must be a citizen of the United States and of the State of Indiana, and must live in the State for the two years preceding his election, and for the year previous, must live in the district from which he is elected. The Constitution also provides for one hundred Representatives, elected to serve for two years. A Representative must be at least twenty-one years old, and have the same qualifications as the Senators.

The Legislature meets at the State Capitol in Indianapolis, every two years, in the odd number of years. It begins on the Thursday following the first Monday in January, and continues sixty-one days. The Governor may call special sessions at any time the public welfare requires it. Both Senators and Representatives receive six dollars per day for their services during the session, and are allowed a certain amount of mileage to cover expenses in traveling to and from the State capital.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Early Indiana Banks—Underground Railroad.

The history of Indiana after the adoption of the Constitution of 1851, is a story of growth and development. The farms were improved, better houses and barns took the place of the log cabins and stables of the pioneers; public schools were introduced and better school-houses erected; towns and villages increased in number and population, and the industries of the State become greater and more extensive. Railroads were attracting the attention of the people and a number of lines were being constructed within the State. The telegraph had made its appearance and the entire country was striving to reach a higher state of civilization.

Aside from this general progress, no great events transpired until the beginning of the civil war, except that the peace and business prosperity of the settlers were disturbed by the unsafety of the banks in the State and the uncertain value of the money then in circulation. I shall not attempt to explain to you the causes of this great financial distress, but merely give an outline of the history of the early banks of the State.

Before the State Bank of Indiana was organized, indeed as early as 1814, the Legislature granted charters to two banks to be established, one at Madison, to be known as "The Farmers' Bank of Indiana," the other at Vincennes, to be called "The Bank of Vincennes." These were the first banks of Indiana.

The Bank of Vincennes violated its charter in 1821, and

its privileges were taken from it, and a large amount of notes which it had put in circulation became worthless property. The notes of The Farmers' Bank were finally redeemed. In 1833-34, The State Bank of Indiana was organized, and before a year ten branches were established in different parts of the State. The law provided that while this bank was in existence no other bank could be chartered and no other banking system authorized.

The banking business in those days was very different from that of to-day. There were neither railroads nor express companies, and when money was to be sent from one bank to another, it was carried by the owners, or by private messengers. Bank officers and their clerks often traveled long distances, on horse-back, over the most difficult and dangerous roads, carrying thousands of dollars in their saddle-bags. They were obliged to seek shelter at night in some settler's cabin, or at some wayside tavern, and although no effort was made to keep their business a secret, no case of robbery was ever heard of. It was no unusual thing for these officers or their agents to make the journey from Fort Wayne to Indianapolis in this way, or from other points requiring three or four days' travel.

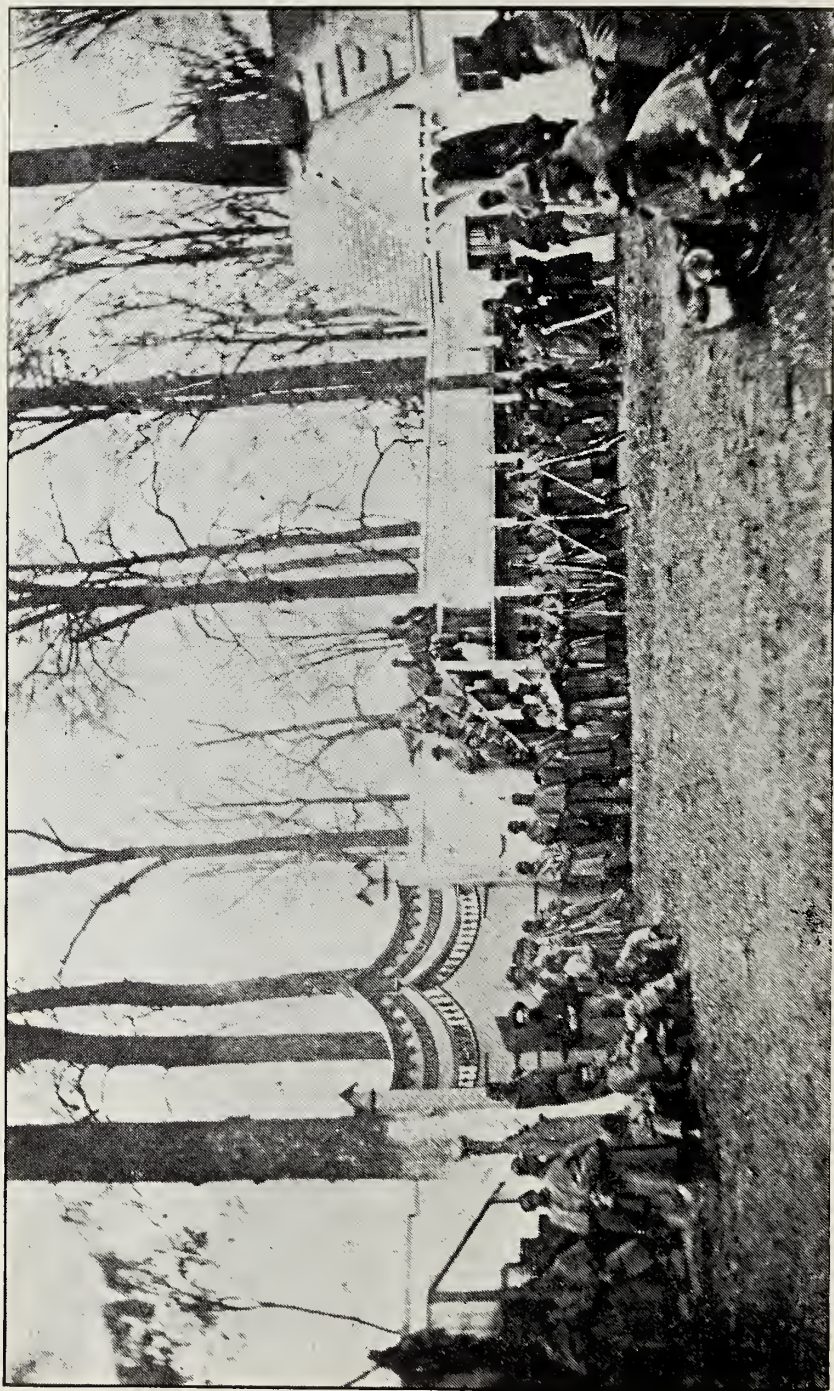
In time the population and business of the State so increased, that it was thought advisable to establish a more liberal banking system, and this was authorized by the Constitution of 1851. As a result, banks sprang up all over the State, and the country was flooded with worthless paper currency.

In those days the government did not issue the currency for the country as it now does, but each bank made its own notes, or paper money. Many of these banks were fraudu-

lent, and circulated thousands of dollars of notes they never expected to redeem.

This worthless money caused no end of trouble, and thousands of people were ruined by it. One by one the banks failed and great distress followed. Business was destroyed and the development of the State greatly retarded. This condition of affairs continued until the establishment of the National Banking system, which put an end to these "Banks of Issue," as they were called.

Another subject which claimed the attention of the people in Indiana at this time, was the Anti-Slavery movement. We know of the bitter feeling against slavery which existed in Indiana and we know that by a direct vote of the people the Constitution of 1851 provided that no negro or mulatto should come into, or settle in the State. This, together with the fugitive slave law, which permitted a slave owner to come into the State and claim and carry away any human property belonging to him, greatly aroused the feelings of those whose sympathies were with these unfortunate people, and was the beginning of the anti-slavery movement, and the mysterious "Underground Railroad" system, of which you may have heard. Those who were active in this movement were called "abolitionists," because they believed in the abolition, or abolishment of slavery. While powerless to free the negroes, they did all they could to increase the sentiment against slavery. To these people many a fugitive slave turned for protection and assistance. In some way they learned to know who their friends were, and after crossing the Ohio River, sought them out and by means of the Underground Railroad, found their way to Canada, where the fugitive slave law of the United States had no effect.



ENTRANCE TO CAMP MORTON, 1864.

From Photograph owned by R. W. Lowrey, Indianapolis.

Of course you must know that there was no actual underground railroad, but the people who received these run-away slaves secreted them in some place of safety, and in the darkness of the night conveyed them to some other point, where they were placed in the care of other friends, who in turn secreted them until they could safely send them on their journey northward. The secrecy and mystery with which these people were passed from one town to another,—from one settlement to another, won for the system the name of the Underground Railroad.

It is never right to violate the laws of our country, as these people certainly did; and yet, there were many good men and women who assisted these fugitive slaves to escape from bondage. They believed, and honestly too, that the laws of humanity are greater than any laws made by man, and so continued their work until the time came, when, by the stroke of a mighty pen, the shackles were stricken from millions of slaves.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

The War for the Union—Indiana in the War.

You have read or been told of the War for the Union, as we shall call it—a war that lasted four years; cost more than half a million lives; destroyed thousands of homes, laid a large portion of the country in ruins, and forever abolished human slavery in America. You must know that there must have been a great dispute which led to so long and bloody a war. You may ask what this dispute was about, which made the North and the South such deadly enemies. I will try to tell.

The seeds of contention had been sown before the thirteen colonies became the United States. At that time the differences were not sectional, but men in both sections could not agree in regard to the power of the Federal government. Washington and his following, which secured the adoption of the Constitution which made the colonies the United States, maintained that the Federal government should be supreme and that the States should be subordinate. Those who followed Thomas Jefferson believed in the independence of the several States. Before he was President, Jefferson put forth the doctrine that a State might ignore any act of Congress that the people thereof believed to be opposed to their interests.

Strange as it may seem, the next threats to ignore the acts of Congress were made in New England, by the enemies of Jefferson, during the war of 1812. Secession was threatened because Congress had passed an embargo act; that is, a law which prevented any ship from going out of an American port. The next secession threat was made by South Carolina in 1832, when its Legislature passed an act to nullify, or make void the tariff laws. The prompt action of General Jackson, then President of the United States, prevented an insurrection.

This would doubtless have been the end of all threats of secession had not the institution of human slavery kept it alive. The political leaders in the slave States very naturally maintained that the Federal government could not interfere with their property in slaves. None except a few abolitionists disputed this. There came however, a question about the extension of slavery into the territories out of which States were being made. So a compromise was

made that beyond a given line, slavery was forever prohibited.

This did not stop the controversy. The North was growing faster than the South and would soon be able to direct the government. Many people in the North were made indignant by the passage of a fugitive slave law which permitted the owner to take the runaway slave in any State and return him to slavery. Nothing would have come of these sectional troubles, however, had not the South been able to cause the compromise of which we have spoken, to be repealed, or made void, thus permitting slavery to be extended into the territories and allowing them to become slave States. This repeal aroused the resentment of the North and extreme bitterness grew out of the efforts of slave-holders to make Kansas a slave State.

The bitterness continued to grow. In 1860 the Northern States elected Abraham Lincoln President of the United States. The Southern leaders insisted that his election meant the freeing of slaves in the Southern States, and that being sovereign, that is having greater power than the Federal government, it was their privilege to withdraw from the Union. It was a revival of the old question of the right of secession, which men both in the South and in New England had proclaimed years before. The slave-owning States did secede and set up a government of their own. On the other hand the North held that the Union could not be dissolved. Upon this issue the country divided.

Slavery was the immediate cause of the secession, but the question of the right to secede was as old as the Federal government. There was no court that could settle this grave dispute, so it was appealed to the battle field. The

result of this four years' trial by battle was in favor of the North. Both sections now admit that the preservation of the Union is best for all, and that the abolition of slavery, which resulted from the war, was a blessing to the South.

The triumph of the Union laid the foundation of national greatness and power. But the South was as sincere in its belief in secession, as the North was in its belief in the Union. Both fought with equal valor, because Grant and Sherman and Thomas on one side, and Lee and Johnson and Gordon on the other, were Americans. To-day men of both sections agree that the Federal government is supreme wherever the Stars and Stripes float.

The War for the Union was a great historical event, and because Indiana took a very important part in it, I will try to tell you something of what she did.

Doubtless you have all read about the firing upon Fort Sumter on that April morning in 1861, which was the beginning of the greatest civil war the world has ever known. For several months there had been heard mutterings of war; the Southern leaders had made threats against the government, and one by one, the States of South Carolina, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia and Louisiana had seceded ---that is, they claimed to have withdrawn from the Union, and refused any longer to obey the laws of the General Government. They seized all the Government forts, ships, arsenals and other property within reach, and set up a government for themselves, which they called "The Confederate States of America," and they adopted a Constitution, and elected Jefferson Davis, of Mississippi, President of the Confederacy, and Alexander H. Stephens, of Georgia, Vice-President.

Although the South had done all this, the people in the North still hoped for a peaceful settlement of the difficulties, but the secessionists, as they were called, went on preparing for war. They collected all the arms and ammunition they could get. They had taken possession of all the forts and guns in Charleston Harbor, South Carolina, except Fort Sumter, which was in command of Major Robert Anderson with a small force of men. On April 11, 1861, General Beauregard, the Confederate commander at Charleston Harbor, demanded of Major Anderson that this fort be surrendered into his hands. Major Anderson refused to surrender, whereupon the Confederate officer caused the fort to be fired upon.

Scarcely had the sound of the first gun died away, when the news flashed over the wires, "Fort Sumter is fired upon." In an almost incredibly short time the news had reached the remotest part of the country, and created the most intense excitement. In spite of all the warnings that had been given, it could scarcely be believed. Our flag fired upon!—and that, too, by those under our own government! The people were wild with excitement and horror; they could not stay in their homes, but thronged the streets and other public places, where they might look into each other's faces and talk of the stirring events that were taking place. They waited eagerly and impatiently for further news from the South, and when it became known that Major Anderson had been compelled by superior force, to surrender Fort Sumter, a deep gloom settled over the country, but only for a day. They soon realized that the country was in danger, and with this came a feeling of responsibility for the safety of the government. All selfishness was for-

gotten, and in the breast of every patriotic American came the determination to defend the Union at any cost.

On April 15th, President Lincoln issued a proclamation calling for 75,000 troops. On the same day, Oliver P. Morton, Governor of Indiana, telegraphed the President, offering him the services of 10,000 men, and then called upon the patriotic sons of Indiana to help him redeem that pledge. How did they respond? The day after the call, 500 men were in camp at the Fair Grounds north of the city of Indianapolis, which was called Camp Morton. Three days after the call 2,400 men were in camp, and every train brought others. In less than a week more than 12,000 men had enlisted.

The government had fixed Indiana's quota, or the number of men she was to furnish, at 4,683 men and officers. Already almost three times that number had enlisted, and the question was not "who will go?" but "who will be allowed to go?" The Governor could not check the stream of soldiers that poured into Camp Morton; so he telegraphed the Secretary of War, at Washington, offering him six regiments; failing to get a reply, he sent a messenger to the Capital to inform the officials that he would place these regiments under drill, and hold them in readiness to go at the call of the government.

Eleven days after Governor Morton's call for troops, these six regiments were fully organized and being drilled. As the Indiana regiments in the Mexican War were numbered from one to five, these regiments were numbered from six to eleven, that there might arise no confusion; and the regiments organized afterward, took successive numbers.

These first six regiments were commanded by Colonels Thomas T. Crittenden, Ebenezer Dumont, William P. Benton, Robert H. Milroy, Mahlon D. Manson and Lew Wallace. They made up the first brigade of Indiana under General Thomas A. Morris. - These enlistments were for three months. There yet remained twenty-nine companies at Camp Morton, and still men continued to enlist. The President called for troops again and again, and Indiana's men were the first to respond.

During the first year of the war, in addition to these six regiments of three months' troops, six regiments of State troops were raised which were afterward transferred to the United States service. The three months' regiments were reorganized for three years' service. Infantry regiments up to the 156th were recruited, and portions of some others. Thirteen regiments of cavalry and one regiment and twenty-five companies of artillery were put into the field, and 2,130 men enlisted in the navy. The most of the companies that enlisted for the first year, re-enlisted when their time expired.

Indiana was all the time ahead of her quota from 2,000 to 30,000 men; and when the war ended, our State had furnished to the Union cause a larger per centum of her men of military age, than any of the larger States. The enlistments in Indiana were 74.1 per cent. of the men of military age; that is, more than 74 out of every one hundred men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years went to the war, and 6.87 per cent. of the entire population, that is, nearly seven out of every one hundred, counting men, women and children, were soldiers.

The troops of most States were sent to the arena of war

nearest them, but from the first, Indiana's men were scattered. Some of the most famous regiments in the Army of the Potomac were from Indiana. They were in all the central armies and those operating on the Mississippi River and beyond. They took part in all the important campaigns, and were in all the important battles fought during the war. The first man killed in battle was an Indiana soldier, a private in the 9th Regiment; the first man killed on picket, was a private in the 7th Indiana; the last man killed in the war, belonged to the 34th Indiana Infantry.

The number of regiments enlisted in Indiana was 151. The number of men belonging to the infantry, was 175,772. The number of men belonging to the cavalry, was 21,605. The number of men belonging to artillery companies, was 10,990. The number of naval volunteers was 2,130. The total number of enlistments was 210,497.

Of these 7,243 were killed or mortally wounded; 19,429 died from disease and other causes; of this number, 1,152 died in Confederate prisons. In the battle of Chickamauga 30 per cent. of the men killed were from Indiana regiments and batteries, showing that they were where fire and smoke were thickest. Our men were the first to meet and oppose General Bragg's army, and Indiana regiments were the last to leave the field. The deaths during the war were 17.7 per cent. of the entire enlistment; or, more than 17 men died, out of every 100 who enlisted. The average deaths of all the States was 16.7 per cent. of the enlistment; this shows Indiana's death rate to be higher than the average. Besides this, many thousands of soldiers came home so ill from wounds and disease, that they soon died.

These may be but dry figures, but every Indiana boy and

girl will be proud to know that OUR STATE furnished more soldiers in proportion to her men of military age, than did the most of the other States.

But collecting soldiers was not all that Governor Morton had to do. When the first call for troops was made, the condition of Indiana was not favorable to war. The militia, or State troops were weak in number and were without arms, and the State was without money. The men must be fed, clothed, armed and drilled before they could be of any use to the government. The Governor called a special session of the Legislature to consider these matters. He sent agents to Eastern cities to procure arms, and succeeded in obtaining an order from the government for 5,000 muskets, but these did not arrive until the first regiments were in the field.

The government was unable to furnish sufficient ammunition for the troops, so Governor Morton put a few soldiers to work making bullets in hand molds, at a blacksmith's forge, and had them packed for use of our men. This proved so good a plan that the little arsenal was enlarged until several hundred men were employed who not only furnished ammunition to Indiana soldiers, but also supplied a large portion of the troops west of the Alleghany Mountains.

Soon the government approved the plan and paid for the work. After the close of the war, the present Government Arsenal was established at Indianapolis.

The railroads brought the troops to the capital free of charge, but the State was obliged to furnish clothing and food for them while they were in camp, and for this purpose, large sums of money were donated by citizens, cities,

towns and counties, while a number of banks and wealthy men offered to loan money to the Governor until the Legislature could make provision to meet the enormous expense.

The Legislature met on April 24th, and promptly authorized the loan of \$2,000,000 to aid in carrying on the war. It also passed a law to organize the Indiana militia, and provided for six regiments of State troops. It also authorized counties to appropriate money for the support of soldiers' families, and for the purchase of arms, and for the expense of raising companies; in short, it did its utmost to aid Governor Morton in his plans for assisting the government in carrying on the war.

While Governor Morton and the Legislature were thus busy in preparing for the war, the people of Indiana were not idle. Public meetings were held in every city, village and neighborhood in the State, for the purpose of raising companies and giving expression to the loyal sentiments of the citizens. There had never been such an exhibition of patriotism on "Hoosier soil." The Stars and Stripes floated from church steeples, school-houses and all public buildings as well as from business houses and many private dwellings, and flags were presented to almost every company of men.

Women were at work supplying the wants of the soldiers, for which the authorities could not provide. Everything that loyal hearts and hands could do, was done to assist Governor Morton; and this work continued as long as there was necessity for it. When the troops were in the field, Indiana's Governor, assisted by the loyal men and women, provided for their needs, both in camp and hospital.

In February, 1862, Camp Morton, where the first Indiana regiments were organized, was made a prison for cap-

tured Confederates, a large number of whom were sent there from Fort Donaldson and other places. They were at first guarded by different regiments, and finally by the veteran reserves. Many of these prisoners were ill, and a hospital was opened where they were kindly cared for, but a large number died and were buried in a graveyard on the banks of White River.

Indianapolis became a great military center, not only for Indiana troops, but for thousands from other States who passed through the city on their way to and from the scenes of war. A number of military camps were established here and in other parts of the State.

So many sick and wounded soldiers were sent home from the South that it became necessary to provide means for taking care of them, and a camp was established for this purpose, south of the Union Depot in Indianapolis. Afterward, a building was secured for their use, which came to be known as "The Soldiers' Home." These sick soldiers were tenderly nursed by the men and women of Indianapolis and other cities. No troops in the Union were better provided for, both at home and at the front, than were those of Indiana.

CHAPTER XXIX.

The War in Indiana.

I have told you something about Indiana in the war; we will now talk of the war in Indiana.

We have seen how promptly Indiana's citizens answered President Lincoln's call for troops to defend the govern-

ment, and how Indiana's Governor and the people united in their efforts to do their share in putting down the rebellion; and we have been surprised that so much could be done in so short a time.

But not all the citizens of our State were what we call "loyal;" that is, not all of them believed that the power of the general government is supreme. Some of them united with the South in the belief that the States had the right to withdraw from the Union whenever they considered it to their interest to do so. Some of them also believed in the institution of slavery. A large number of the early immigrants and those who came later, were from slave States, and it is not strange that they should still hold to the beliefs and opinions of the Southern people.

Many of them had friends and relatives in the seceding States, and their sympathies were naturally with them. Besides all this, slavery at one time existed in Indiana, and you will remember that many of the members of the Constitutional Convention of 1851, were opposed to negroes and mulattoes coming into the State, and that the subject was warmly discussed, and that the questions concerning it were submitted to a direct vote of the people, because the delegates could not agree.

This was but ten years before the beginning of the war, and the strong feelings then expressed in favor of slavery, could not be expected to disappear in so short a time; and so it was, that while a very large majority of the people of Indiana were "unionists," there were those who favored the Southern cause, and in the contest between the General Government and the slave States, their sympathies were with the South.

This difference in opinion between people of the same locality was very unpleasant, and in some communities caused much strife and ill-feeling, especially in the southern counties where the secession element was strongest. Secret societies were organized in some of these counties, for the purpose of aiding the Southern cause, and to prevent Southern sympathizers from being drafted into the Northern armies, but they were discovered and contro'led before much mischief was done.

From the first there had been much alarm lest the Confederates in Kentucky should cross the river and attack the towns in Indiana. Kentucky, as you know, lies just across the Ohio River from Indiana, and is the State which separates the North from the South. The people of Kentucky were divided concerning the causes of the war, a majority of them being unionists. Many of them had friends among the Northern people; some of them had been educated in the North and their sympathies were with the Union cause; but a very large number sympathized with the South. Among these were the Governor and many of the officials and leading men of the State, so when President Lincoln called upon Kentucky for men to aid in protecting the Union, the Governor refused to send troops, and it was feared that Kentucky might secede.

The feeling became very bitter. The State was overrun with bands of lawless men called "guerrillas," who robbed and plundered whomsoever they pleased, and mercilessly persecuted the union people, and not unfrequently killed them. This was the class of men that the citizens of Indiana had cause to fear.

The relations existing between Indiana and Kentucky

were peculiar. The people were bound together by ties of blood and friendship. Many Kentuckians had come into our State to make their homes; many Indianians lived in Kentucky, and the people of the sister States were closely associated in business, while their social relations were the most cordial. Nor did Indiana forget the debt of gratitude she owed to Kentucky, who sent her troops to defend the settlements in pioneer days, and when the news came that the Confederate Generals John Morgan and Kirby Smith, with a large force of troops had invaded the State and threatened to capture both Cincinnati and Louisville, Indiana sent over 20,000 men to her assistance.

It was known that the guerrillas who infested Kentucky were liable to invade Indiana at any time, and it became necessary to have a force of armed men to guard the entire river border, to prevent them from crossing. Companies of men were formed in all the southern counties and towns. These military organizations, or State militia, which were formed to protect the borders, were called "The Indiana Legion." Besides this, the citizens armed themselves and joined together to protect themselves and their property. By these acts they stood as a protection to the whole State, being as a barrier between the North and the South.

Although exposed to constant danger, there was no invasion in Indiana until July, 1862. At this time, A. R. Johnson, a guerrilla chief in command of a small force of mounted men, some of them deserters from the Union army, was raiding through Kentucky, committing all sorts of outrages upon such union citizens as he could find, killing some of them and destroying the property of others; thus his name became a terror to the country. On the 18th of July,

they crossed the Ohio River at Newburg, in Warrick County, about fifteen miles above Evansville, where there was a hospital containing eighty or ninety sick union soldiers; here also were some arms and ammunition belonging to the Indiana Legion.

The invaders landed at the noon hour, when most of the people were at dinner, and before the alarm could be given, and the militia called out, they had captured the hospital, the arms and ammunition, and had thrown out pickets, or guards, in every direction. The inhabitants were told that their lives depended upon their remaining quiet; that a battery, or cannon was planted on the opposite side of the river and that they would shell the town if an attempt was made to resist them.

The attack was so sudden, the surprise so complete, that the citizens were obliged to submit. The guerrillas captured their horses, robbed their houses and stores, and committed other outrages. The sick soldiers were compelled to sign paroles; that is, they were compelled to take an oath that they would not again fight against the South, until they had been exchanged for Confederate prisoners. Some of the disloyal citizens of Newburg took part in the raid, and assisted in plundering the town. Two of them afterward met death at the hands of the citizens.

While the guerrillas were plundering and robbing Newburg, a messenger had been sent to Evansville to procure assistance. In less than an hour after the alarm was given, 1,000 men were armed and ready to start to the assistance of their neighbors. A part of them were sent in steamboats to Newburg, and the remainder marched across the country, but before they arrived the raiders had crossed

the river into Kentucky, and were out of the reach of the militia.

The danger from these marauding parties grew worse. In Kentucky they continued to plunder, and sometimes murder, and the southern portion of Indiana was in a constant state of alarm. Governor Morton had sent all the troops that could be spared, to the assistance of Kentucky, but after the raid on Newburg he determined to organize a force strong enough to invade Kentucky and break up these guerrilla bands and drive them out of the country. He informed General Boyle (who commanded the union troops in Kentucky) of his plans—which met the approval of that officer—and at once set about to execute them.

Major-General Love, who commanded the Indiana Legion, was sent to Evansville with a company of men, arms and ammunition; a call was made for volunteers, and the Legion in the border counties was ordered on duty. The Newburg outrage had caused great alarm and indignation throughout the State, and there was a quick response to the Governor's call.

It was a part of the plan of the Confederates to carry the seat of the war into the Northern States, and as a step in this direction, General E. Kirby Smith with a large force of men, marched toward Kentucky, with the intention of capturing Cincinnati, Louisville and other towns on the Ohio River, and of destroying the railroads and telegraphs, and thus preventing communication between the North and the South and allowing no reinforcements to reach the Northern Army at the front.

On July 10th, General Boyle telegraphed Governor Morton, informing him of this threatened danger, and calling for troops to help defend Kentucky and prevent Smith's

army from capturing the cities and towns on the Ohio River. At this time, the only organized troops in Indiana were guarding the Confederate prisoners at Indianapolis. So Governor Morton at once placed a portion of the Indiana Legion as guards at Camp Morton, and sent the disciplined men to the assistance of Kentucky.

The trouble continued, and on August 8th, Governor Morton was again called upon for troops. He immediately issued a call for volunteers, and by the 11th, 20,000 men had enlisted. The news was received that Smith and Morgan had again invaded Kentucky, and that again our borders were exposed. Great alarm spread over the State, and the troops were hurried into Kentucky without time for drill.

On August 29th and 30th, our troops met the Confederates at Richmond, Kentucky, and a battle was fought in which nearly 1,000 Indiana soldiers were killed and wounded, and two thousand captured and paroled; our men fought so well that they received praise from Brigadier-General Boyle for their bravery. Although the battle was lost to us, it checked the progress of the Confederates and gave time to prepare for the defense of Cincinnati.

On September 6th, Governor Morton sent two Indiana regiments and a large amount of ammunition to Cincinnati, and with his military staff went to assist in arranging for the defense of the city.

General Lew Wallace was placed in command of the troops, and Smith was forced to withdraw. Immediately General Bragg threatened to attack Louisville, but after the battle of Perryville, October 8th, Bragg and Smith were driven from the State, and our borders were for a time unmolested.

The work of enlisting and organizing troops in Indiana continued. In a little more than a month, 30,000 three-years soldiers had enlisted and been organized. With but little assistance Indiana regiments had fought the battles of Richmond and Munfordsville, and prevented the enemy from advancing upon Cincinnati and Louisville, and had assisted in driving the invaders out of Kentucky.

All this time the Indiana Legion and "Minute Men," or armed citizens, had guarded the borders of the State, and prevented bands of guerrillas from crossing the Ohio. For nearly four hundred miles the river was patrolled, and about 4,000 Confederate prisoners guarded at Indianapolis. Every demand made upon Indiana by the General Government, or by "neighboring States" was promptly and willingly met.

In May, 1863, Captain Hines, with a company of men belonging to Morgan's cavalry, made a raid in southern Indiana, and succeeded in capturing a number of horses and plundering a few houses. All except Hines and a few of his men were captured; a few were killed and drowned in trying to make their escape.

CHAPTER XXX.

Morgan's Raid in Indiana.

Have you read of Genral John Morgan, and how with a large force of mounted Confederate troops he crossed the Ohio River and invaded southern Indiana? In times of war it is not unusual for an army to invade the enemy's country, and to rob, plunder and destroy much that comes in its

way---and I shall try to tell you about this raid of Morgan's; not because it is worse than others; than those perpetrated by the Federal troops, perhaps—but because it took place on Indiana soil, and for that reason particularly concerns us.

In the summer of 1863, the position of the Confederate army in East Tennessee was perilous. It was threatened by strong Federal forces, and to draw off the Union troops and prevent an attack, General Morgan, who belonged to General Bragg's army, planned a raid through Kentucky, Indiana and Ohio. This, he argued, would employ the Union troops upon his tracks, prevent them from uniting and attacking the Confederates in Tennessee, and give them an opportunity to better fortify themselves. It would also give him an opportunity to procure a good supply of horses, of which his men stood sorely in need.

His starting point was Alexandria, Tennessee; from there he pushed northward through Kentucky, gathering strength as he went, until he reached the Ohio River at Brandenburg, two miles above Mauxport, in Harrison County, Indiana, where he arrived on the morning of July 8th, 1863, with a force of about 2,200 mounted men.

Two officers and a squad of men had been sent forward the day before to secure boats for crossing the river. Shortly after they reached Brandenburg, the steamer J. T. McCombs ran up to the wharf. No sooner had she touched than they boarded her, made prisoners of the crew, and took possession of the boat. As fortune would have it, the Alice Dean soon came steaming around the bend; they ran the McCombs out into the river and had no difficulty in capturing her. This gave the means of crossing the Ohio, and

when Morgan arrived, the boats were ready to convey his troops to the Indiana side.

The report that Morgan's men had captured the two steamboats was quickly carried to Mauxport, and Lieutenant Irvin at once sent a messenger to Corydon for troops to assist in preventing them from landing. About the same time the steamer Lady Pike came up the river; she was sent back to Leavenworth for artillery and gunners, and in a few hours returned with a six-pound gun, and thirty men under Captain Lyon. They landed two miles below the town that they might not be seen by the Confederates, and hauled the gun by hand to Mauxport, where Colonel Timberlake and about one hundred of the Indiana Legion had assembled.

Dragging the gun with them, they proceeded to a point opposite Brandenburg, where the captured boats lay. Planting their gun in front of an old house opposite the landing, they waited for a heavy fog to clear away, and when it had risen, Morgan's men could be seen preparing to cross.

Several shots were fired at them, but the Confederate guns were soon trained on the artillerymen, and they were forced to fall back, dragging their gun with them. The militia stationed along the bank to prevent them from crossing were fired upon, and although they bravely defended themselves, they were so small in number that they were compelled to retreat. A party of Morgan's men landed, captured the gun and took several prisoners. Seeing that they were greatly outnumbered, the militia fell back toward Corydon, but a skirmish was kept up with the invaders until they reached a point six miles from Corydon, where Colonel Jordon with 200 of the Legion had formed a line of battle.

During this time the remainder of Morgan's men were crossing the river. They were interrupted in this by a little gun-boat, and later by two steamers fitted up with batteries, which opened fire upon them. No particular harm was done, but Morgan's force was divided, a portion having gone in pursuit of the militia, while the remainder were prevented from crossing the river for several hours. Finally the boats were driven off by the invaders' guns and they crossed without further delay.

After the battle of Tippecanoe, which ended the trouble with the Indians, there had been no war in Indiana, so when the news was received that Morgan threatened to cross the Ohio River with a large force of men, capture Indianapolis, release the 4,000 Confederate prisoners confined at Camp Morton, and capture or destroy the arsenal where the military supplies were kept, the people were greatly alarmed, and when it was reported that the Confederates had actually invaded the State, there was wide-spread consternation.

At this time all the Indiana troops were in the field except two companies, which were doing duty at the Soldiers' Home at Indianapolis, a small number of recruits and a few exchanged prisoners. The State was in no condition to defend her borders. True, the militia was organized, but not trained; it was simply a collection of citizens, undisciplined and not well armed. A small number were better drilled, but they were too few to be very effective. There were not more than 200 mounted troops in the State, besides a small company of citizens using their own horses. What could they do against an army of more than 2,000 well trained cavalry?

As soon as Governor Morton learned that Morgan was marching northward through Kentucky, he ordered out the militia along the borders to prevent him from crossing the river. Some of these companies were sent to Louisville at the request of the General in command there, and some Michigan troops were ordered to this State.

You will remember that large numbers of Indiana soldiers had been sent to the assistance of Kentucky, and when Governor Morton received the news that Morgan was on the banks of the Ohio, preparing to cross, he sent an earnest request to General Boyle, who was in command of the forces in Kentucky, to send troops to prevent him. General Boyle made no reply. Again and again Governor Morton requested that our own troops be sent to our assistance. After the third message had been received, General Boyle sent the following reply: "Morgan is near Corydon, and will either move upon New Albany or the interior of the State. He has no less than 4,000 men and six pieces of artillery. General Hobson, in pursuit of him, is at Brandenburg, and has sent for transports to cross his forces. Your cities and towns will be sacked and pillaged if you do not bring out your State forces." General Boyle seemed to have forgotten how promptly Indiana responded to his call for troops to defend Kentucky and did not offer to assist us, even with our own men.

However, Governor Morton had not relied upon receiving help from General Boyle, and had lost no time in securing ammunition and cars for transporting men. He published a general order, announcing that Morgan had invaded Indiana, and ordered all able-bodied men south of the National Road to form themselves into companies, elect offi-

cers, perfect themselves in drill, and as far as possible, to secure horses and arm themselves.

Citizens in other parts of the State were also requested to form companies and to be ready for service when called for. At the same time a request was sent to the commander of the river fleet for gun-boats to prevent Morgan from recrossing the river. A request was also telegraphed General Burnside to send back the troops and artillery sent to Kentucky a few days before; and as it was believed that the invaders would attempt to recross the river between Louisville and Madison, he urged that it be guarded from Louisville to Lawrenceburg. This was done. General Boyle was ordered to patrol the river, and General Burnside assured Governor Morton that he should have sufficient National troops to resist the invaders.

At Governor Morton's suggestion, a number of ordinary river steamers were fitted up as gun-boats, and Lieutenant George Brown, of the United States navy, who was at Indianapolis on leave, was placed in command of the fleet. In addition to this, Governor Morton purchased arms for the use of the cavalry force, and the men at the arsenal were put to work making ammunition.

Prominent citizens in many counties were requested to organize all the able-bodied men in their neighborhood into companies, and to provide them with blankets and bring them to Indianapolis as early as possible, and men were sent through the country to secure volunteers.

While the Governor and other officials were thus busy preparing to meet the invaders, the people all over the State were gathering in such numbers as could not have been imagined. In less than twenty-four hours after the call for

volunteers, 5,000 men were ready for service and 10,000 were on the way to the capital. Within two days 20,000 men had mustered, and notice was received that 45,000 men were organized and ready for service, making a total of 65,000 men gathered in defense of the State within forty-eight hours; this, too, in the busiest time of the year.

The farmers were in the midst of harvest. So many men were already in the war that it was difficult to secure sufficient help to gather in the grain. The crops were ripe, and to neglect them would mean a great loss to the owners. But they did not for a moment hesitate; the grain was left to perish in the fields, merchants left their stores, mechanics deserted their shops, students threw aside their books, and old and young, rich and poor, swarmed in great numbers to the capital city or to the nearest towns.

Indianapolis was the central mustering place, and it became an immense barracks. The camps were overflowing, vacant lots and buildings were full of soldiers, halls, lofts and streets became their sleeping places. Railroad trains came rushing in every hour, filled with "shouting men." Wagons loaded with them came pouring into the city from the nearest districts, leaving a long line of cloud-like dust behind them.

The work of organizing such a force was indeed great. General Carrington came from Ohio to assist in mustering the men. Major-General Wilcox was in command of the District of Indiana and Michigan. Major-General Lew Wallace, at the request of Governor Morton, was detailed to assist in the defenses of the State; General Hascall was placed in command of the defenses at Indianapolis. Captain Farquhar was appointed Brigadier-General of the State

troops and was sent to Evansville to organize the militia for the protection of the river borders. Major-General Mansfield was sent to take charge of the troops and to bring out the militia on the way. Colonel Fribarger was sent to organize the artillery, and other officers were called into service as they were needed.

But what had Morgan been doing all this time? After crossing the river he marched directly northward toward Corydon, plundering as he went. He met resistance from the militia, but so greatly outnumbered them that he had but little difficulty in reaching the old State capital, where he opened his artillery upon the little band of defenders, who found themselves almost surrounded by a veteran force eight times as great as their own, and were forced to surrender 345 of their men. (These were afterward paroled by Morgan.) Three of the militia were killed and three wounded, one of whom died, and one man died from heat and exhaustion.

Morgan and his chief officers took quarters in a hotel in the town, while his men broke into the stores and dwellings, taking what they wished, and destroying what they could not take. They robbed the county treasury, made milling firms pay them large sums of money to ransom their mills from fire, and compelled the women to cook food for them. They took two prominent citizens prisoners, while entering the town, made them ride at the head of the column, and threatened to shoot them if they were fired upon.

After securing all the horses for miles around, and resting a few hours, they rode out of Corydon, leaving their own worn-out steeds and eleven of their wounded men. A few miles from Corydon they killed a man for trying to avoid capture and shot and wounded two boys.

After leaving Corydon, Morgan divided his force, sending one detachment on the right to Greenville, in Floyd County, another on the left to Paoli, in Orange County, while the main body continued northward to Palmyra, in Harrison County. By thus dividing his army he confused the authorities, and left a doubt as to where he intended to strike.

After securing all the horses in the country through which they passed, plundering and destroying as they went, they again united at Salem, in Washington County, on the morning of the 10th. They entered the town without difficulty, easily dispersing the badly armed troops that came out to meet them, and capturing a company of Legion men, and forcing others to retreat. They burned the railroad depot, destroyed bridges, tore up the track, plundered stores and dwellings, and in short repeated the work of the previous day. There were never such depredations committed in Indiana.

The raiders took things they did not want and for which they had no use, for the mere pleasure it gave them, only to throw them away. Bolts of muslin and dress goods, bird cages, skates, tinware and buttons, silverware—anything that attracted their attention was taken from the stores and houses. Food they had in abundance, and where they could not find it prepared, they compelled the women to cook it for them.

They did not remain long in Salem, but again turned northward toward Indianapolis; but Morgan soon discovered this to be a dangerous route and changed his course. By this time the State troops had been organized and strong detachments stationed at Mitchell, in Lawrence County, and

at Seymour, in Jackson County; both these towns were situated on the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad, which lay directly in front of Morgan's moving army. A large number of cars had been collected at these places, which could convey the soldiers to any point in either direction. The Confederates must cross this road, between these armies, before they could reach Indianapolis, where a still greater force awaited them.

Morgan also learned that General Hobson with a large cavalry force, had crossed the Ohio River and was pursuing him, thus cutting off all retreat, and that the forces of the State were rapidly forming and would soon bear down upon him in every direction. His only safety lay in flight. Quickly changing his course to the eastward, he hurried toward the Ohio River, apparently with the intention of crossing before he could be intercepted. He continued this course, passing through Canton and New Philadelphia, in Washington County, to Vienna, in Scott County; here he stopped long enough to burn some railroad bridges and capture the telegraph operator, and by "tapping the wires" learned of the work being done by the State authorities, and that orders had been given to fell trees across all the roads over which he was liable to travel, to obstruct the passage of his army. He then proceeded to Lexington, the county seat of Scott County, and camped for the night.

The next morning he started in a northerly direction toward Vernon, in Jennings County, throwing out detachments toward Madison, to prevent the troops assembled there from moving against him. North Vernon was an important railroad crossing and was guarded by the State troops. Vernon, but a few miles away, was also guarded.

Not caring to make an attack, Morgan sent a flag of truce to the commanding officer, Colonel Williams, demanding a surrender, and threw out some skirmishers as though going to attack the town.

Colonel Williams refused to surrender, and Morgan sent a second flag of truce, with a second demand to surrender. In the meantime General Love had arrived, and the flag was returned with a message demanding Morgan himself to surrender.

By this time our force had increased to 1,000 men, and General Love prepared to fight. He sent a request to Morgan for two hours in which to remove the women and children. Morgan granted him thirty minutes, and they were hurried into a woods near by, where they were out of danger; the guns were placed in position, and the troops arranged to the best advantage.

A detachment of Morgan's men tried to get in between the towns, which caused a slight skirmish, but they made no attack. While all this was taking place, the main portion of Morgan's army had quietly slipped away, and was moving off toward Dupont, in Jefferson County. In fact, he had no intention of fighting, but only made a pretense to attract the attention of the State troops while he removed his men. The next morning General Wallace with a force of men from Indianapolis, and General Hughs with a force from Mitchell, arrived at Vernon, but the wily chief and his band had escaped.

At Dupont the invaders camped, repeated the depredations of the previous days, burning bridges, destroying railroads, telegraphs, and fields of grain, and robbing and plundering as was their habit. They raided a large packing

house, and each man rode away with a ham of meat adorning his saddle. The next morning they again turned toward the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad, capturing horses, burning and plunder as they went. Dashing into Versailles, they captured Colonel Cravens and 300 men, made a prisoner of the county treasurer, robbed the treasury, and plundered the stores and dwellings in their own fashion.

All this time the State troops were bearing down upon Morgan in sufficient numbers to have crushed him, had not the rapidity of his movements prevented them from coming together; besides it was very difficult to pursue a body of mounted men with infantry transported by railroad.

General Hobson was pursuing Morgan, and was sometimes not more than twenty-five miles behind him, but his horses were worn and jaded, while Morgan's were fresh, since in his flight he had taken all the good ones out of the country, leaving his worn out horses in their places. Another serious difficulty in the way of capturing Morgan was the lack of correct information concerning his movements. He was a cunning foe, and always left doubt as to his real intentions, and many conflicting reports reached the authorities and greatly confused them.

Leaving Versailles, the Confederates continued their course toward the Ohio and Mississippi Railroad, reaching Osgood, where they captured the telegraph operator. They then proceeded to Pierceville and Milan, destroying property as they went. As they neared Sunman their pickets encountered 2,500 militiamen and a regiment of minutemen, which caused a slight skirmish, and the invaders turned toward the Ohio River, burning bridges and destroying railroad property as they went. Passing through Hubbell,

New Alsace and Logan, they reached the Ohio border at Harrison, and passed out of the State on the 13th, closely pursued.

Having followed Morgan on his raid through Indiana, we will pursue him no further, except to say that he was followed in his flight through Ohio, and was captured near the eastern boundary of the State, and he and his greatly diminished force were confined in the Ohio Penitentiary, from which Morgan and seven of his men afterward escaped and made their way to Richmond, Virginia.

The brilliant scheme of the Confederate General resulted in his defeat and capture, and thus ended the war in Indiana.

CHAPTER XXXI.

After the War—Educational Advancement—Taxes.

The war for the Union practically ended with the surrender of General Lee's army, April 9, 1865, and soon afterward the Federal soldiers began to return. As rapidly as the Indiana regiments were mustered out of service, they hastened to their homes and families.

There was great rejoicing over the news of Lee's surrender. The deep gloom that had rested over the country for four long years began to disperse, and the people began to take a more hopeful view of the future. But their rejoicing was again changed to horror and gloom a few days later, when the news flashed over the land that President Lincoln had been treacherously assassinated; and when the remains of that great and good man were brought to Indianapolis,

and lay in state at the old Capitol building, thousands of people thronged the city to pay tribute to his greatness and to express their grief at his loss.

Again there was joy all over the land when our soldiers began to arrive; there was also much sorrow, for many a brave man laid down his life for his country, and thousands of homes were made desolate.

The general government had serious problems to solve concerning the South and the recently freed slaves, and the bitterness between the sections which this terrible war had caused could not be expected to disappear with the laying down of arms.

There were those who contended that the States could not secede, and that the Southern States had really never been out of the Union, and were therefore entitled to representation in the General Government. Others maintained that since the South had seceded, it should be ruled as a conquered territory, and the government of the Southern States reconstructed.

The mass of ignorant, untrained negroes, suddenly thrown upon their own resources, with neither the means nor the ability to take care of themselves, who knew not what to do with their newly acquired freedom, and had no idea of self-government, was another grave problem which confronted statesmen, and it was a long time before the settled policy of the government could be defined. But as these matters more directly concern the General Government than they do Indiana, we shall not consider them here, but will confine ourselves to subjects immediately touching our own State and her people.

The war had cost Indiana large sums of money, and it

taxed the State heavily to meet the obligations it had assumed. The business interests of the people, too, had been greatly disturbed by the war, and many men returned to find their business ruined and their farms neglected and in great need of repair. The question uppermost in the mind of every soldier was what he should do to establish himself in business, and how he could best take care of himself and family.

Many thousands returned home sick from wounds and disease; many of these died, while others were so broken in health that they could not assume the avocations for which they were fitted. But after a while each found his place, and soon the soldier settled down into the citizen and assumed the ordinary duties of citizenship. Many of the veterans emigrated to Kansas and other Western States, where many of them secured lands from the government, and assisted in bringing about the wonderful development of the great West.

Some of them returned to the business they abandoned to enter the army; others engaged in new enterprises, and soon the business of the shops and stores and farms, as well as that of the professions, was being conducted as though it had not been interrupted by four long years of cruel war. The sound of the drum and bugle gave place to the sounds of peaceful occupations, and the attention of the people was again turned to the development of the resources of the State; to the building of railroads and telegraphs, to draining the land, improving the farms and roads, and extending the commerce of the State. Since that time the growth and development of Indiana has been strong and steady.

But in no particular has there been greater advancement

than along the lines of education. After the adoption of the Constitution of 1851, which provided for a general and uniform system of common schools, the friends of education were earnest in their efforts to improve the condition of the schools in the State. The breaking out of the civil war arrested this progress for a time, but after its close the attention of the people was again called to this matter, and laws were enacted to promote the cause of education.

In 1865, the State Normal School was established for the professional training of teachers. County Teachers' Institutes were also established (the State Teachers' Institute was established in 1854), and the State Board of Education was changed to consist largely of professional educators.

Since that time the influence of the State Board of Education has been felt throughout the State. Through its efforts and that of other friends of education the standard of scholarship of teachers has been raised, and laws governing the educational affairs of the State have from time to time been made. In 1873 the management of the school system in the counties was placed in the hands of County Superintendents. They were made responsible for the management of the school funds in their counties, and were required to visit the schools and look after the progress and work of the teachers. Marked improvement has been the result. Well furnished and substantial buildings have taken the place of the log or rough frame school-house, and the visits of the Superintendents have stimulated both teachers and pupils to greater exertion.

In 1883, the Indiana Reading Circle was established, and six years later Township Teachers' Institutes were held, all of which have aided in raising the standard of education in Indiana.

For many years the selection of text-books for the use of schools was made by the County Boards of Education, and as a consequence a great number and variety of books were used in the public schools. In 1889 the General Assembly enacted a law authorizing the State Board of Education to act as a Text-Book Commission, and to select a uniform series of common school text-books to be used by the schools of the State. The price of school books was thereby greatly reduced, and a burden lifted from off the school patrons caused by the frequent changes in the school books and the exorbitant prices charged for them by publishers and dealers.

Through the efforts of the State Board of Education, a system of graded schools has grown up in the State, which has been a great benefit to the education of the children. Out of this system has grown a tendency to centralize the schools, to abolish many of the small district schools and establish graded schools in central localities. The result of this effort has been most satisfactory. In some of the remote districts public conveyances are sent to carry the children to and from school, the expense being much less than that of maintaining schools in thinly populated districts, while the children are given the advantages of the graded schools.

As a result of this system of graded schools the attendance at the high schools, colleges and normals has greatly increased, and the needs of the children are more fully met.

An ideal school system has been the outgrowth of these years of legislation, toil and struggle, which embraces three distinct divisions, which are called primary, secondary and higher education. The primary division is represented by

the country and city graded schools, the secondary by the high schools in both the country and cities, the higher by the universities and colleges.

This great school system, which is equaled by no other State in the Union, places Indiana in the advance in all educational affairs, and has won for her the distinction of having established the model public school system of the United States.

TAXES.

To meet the expenses of the government, pay the public officers of the State, counties, townships and towns, to make public improvements, build roads, bridges, streets, court houses, school-houses and jails and keep them in repair, to support the benevolent and reformatory institutions, to educate the children, take care of the poor, and carry on other work of public benefit, there must be a fund, or an amount of money collected from the people of the State; and so a tax is levied on the private property of the citizens and on that of companies and corporations.

A tax is an amount of money required to be paid by property-owners to meet the expense of the government. To levy a tax means to fix the amount to be paid on each one hundred dollars worth of property. This is called a property tax. This method of raising money to pay the expense of the State government was not looked upon with very great favor by the early settlers, who found it very difficult to meet this demand made upon them, but they soon grew accustomed to it and came to consider it a fair and equal measure, and it became the settled policy of the State government.

Every four years, an officer called a Township Assessor, together with his assistants, examines all real estate—that is, all lands and houses—in his township, and determines or fixes their value. This is called an “assessment for taxation,” or “valuation of property.”

After all the Township Assessors in a county have performed this work, they make a report to the “County Board of Review,” which is composed of the County Assessor, Auditor, Clerk of the Court and two land-owners, or “freeholders,” in the county. This Board of Review examines the reports of these Assessors, to see if they are correct, to rectify mistakes and equalize the valuation of property—that is, should they find that property in one township is assessed higher or lower than the same class of property in another township, they equalize it, or make it the same in all the townships.

After this is done, a report of the number of acres of land in each township, a report of the amount of the assessment on land and property, the number of miles of railroad in the county, and the names of the companies owning it, is sent to the Auditor of State, who places it before the State Board of Tax Commissioners. This board examines the reports sent from all the counties, to see if all assessments have been made according to the law, and to equalize the valuation of property in the different counties, just as the County Board of Review did among the townships, and to see that all taxes due the State are paid. It also levies a tax on the railroad, telegraph, telephone and other companies, and transacts other business connected with the taxes of the State.

After this is done, the Auditor of State sends a report to each County Auditor, and from this report the property in

the county is assessed. The County Auditor then makes a list of all persons assessed for taxes, with the value of their property.

Having equalized the value of all the property in the different counties, a tax of a few cents on each hundred dollars worth of property is levied for State purposes, which must be collected by the County Treasurers and paid to the State Treasurer. The amount of this levy is fixed by the Legislature.

The Board of County Commissioners, under the direction of the County Advisory Board, fixes the amount of county tax, and with the list of taxpayers and the value of their property, the amount due from each property-owner is estimated. This amount must be paid to the County Treasurer within a certain time or it becomes delinquent, and a per cent is added to the original amount, and if he still fails to pay, enough of his property may, after a certain time, be sold for tax.

The Township Trustee, with the consent of the County Commissioners, also levies a tax for township purposes, and cities and towns levy another tax for their expenses. In addition to the property tax, there is another tax called a "poll" tax, which is a tax collected of every person entitled to vote, who is under fifty years of age. The State, county, township and cities or towns may each assess a poll tax, which is added to the property tax and collected in the same manner.

CHAPTER XXXII.

Penal and Benevolent Institutions.

In every country and in all times there have been men and women who would not obey the laws made for their government unless compelled to do so; for this reason a law would be of no use if there were no penalty for its violation. And so, for every law made for our government, there is a punishment for those who disobey it. Sometimes it is a fine, sometimes it is imprisonment, and in certain cases it is death.

In every county in Indiana a jail has been built, where those arrested for crime may be placed for safe-keeping until tried by the court, and where persons guilty of small offenses may be confined as a punishment. However, not all persons arrested for crime are confined in jail; for most offenses the accused may, with good security, give bond, or "bail," in the payment of a certain sum of money, if he fails to appear to answer to the charges made against him.

In addition to the county jails, the State has erected four prisons, where those convicted of crime may be sent for punishment and reformation. These institutions are called "The Indiana State Prison," "The Indiana Reformatory," "The Indiana Reform School for Boys" and "The Indiana Industrial School for Girls and Women's Prison."

The Indiana State Prison is a prison for men. It was erected at Michigan City in 1860. Here all "life prisoners" and criminals over thirty years old are sent.

The Indiana Reformatory is situated at Jeffersonville. It

was the first prison erected by the State. It was called the Indiana Penitentiary and was built in 1822. (Other buildings have since been erected.) In the beginning all criminals, men, women, boys and girls, were sent here, whatever their crime may have been; hardened murderers and boys and girls guilty of their first offense were confined under the same roof. In time it became too small to contain the mass of law-breakers gathered there, and another prison was erected at Michigan City, and later a separate prison for women, and reform schools for girls and boys were built.

In 1897 the "indeterminate sentence" method of dealing with criminals was adopted in Indiana, and the prison at Jeffersonville was changed into a "reformatory," while the prison at Michigan City remained a penitentiary. All life prisoners and those over thirty years old were sent to Michigan City, and those under thirty years of age were brought to Jeffersonville. Here the object is to try to reform these wrong-doers and make honest citizens of them.

Under the indeterminate system the term of imprisonment is not fixed by the jury which convicts a man, or finds him guilty, but is determined by the Board of Prison Managers, and the time they fix depends upon the conduct of the prisoner himself; thus by good behavior he may shorten his term of imprisonment, while if his conduct is vicious and unruly, the time is lengthened, and he may be sent to the prison at Michigan City and punished to the full extent of the law.

The Indiana Industrial School for Girls and Women's Prison is located at Indianapolis. It was established in 1873, at which time the women and girls were taken from the penitentiary at Jeffersonville and placed there. Two

separate institutions are here combined under one management. In the Women's Prison the convicts, or criminals, are confined and subjected to rigid rules. The Industrial School for Girls, although in the same building, is completely and distinctly separated from the prison. Girls between the years of eight and sixteen, who are incorrigible or vicious, or who have been guilty of violating the law, are sent here to remain until they are eighteen years old, unless sooner placed in good homes. They are required to attend school and are taught to perform useful labor, and an effort is made to reform them and teach them to be honest, useful women.

The Indiana Reform School for Boys is located near Plainfield, and was opened for the reception of boy criminals in 1868, at which time all the prisoners under sixteen years old were taken from the Jeffersonville Penitentiary and placed there. Boys between the ages of eight and sixteen who have committed crime, or who are incorrigible or vicious, may be sent there until they are twenty-one years old, unless sooner released for good behavior. They are required to attend school and are taught a trade by which they may earn a living when they leave the school, and every effort is made to make good men of them.

Each of these prisons, which are called "penal institutions," is under the control of a Board of Trustees, appointed by the Governor; that of the Girls' Industrial School and Women's Prison being composed of women, the others of men. The Indiana State Prison is in charge of a warden, the others are under the care of superintendents.

The men who framed our Constitution and made our laws recognized our duty to the unfortunate people of our State,

and provided that a number of institutions, called "Benevolent Institutions," should be built and supported by the State government.

These institutions are called "The Indiana Institution for the Education of the Blind," "The Indiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf," "The Indiana Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home," "The State Soldiers' Home," "The School for Feeble-Minded Youth," and four Hospitals for the Insane, located respectively at Indianapolis, Logansport, Evansville and Richmond. Large and appropriate buildings have been erected at each of these places, and here the men and women who have lost their reason from disease and other causes are cared for by physicians and attendants employed by the State.

The Central Hospital for the Insane is the oldest of these hospitals; it was built in 1847, and stands in the midst of large and beautiful grounds west of the city of Indianapolis. Here more than a thousand patients are constantly cared for. Large as this hospital is, it is not large enough to contain all that class of unfortunates, and in 1881 the Legislature appropriated money to build three other hospitals for the insane. One of these was built at Logansport and is called "The Northern Hospital for the Insane," or "Long-cliff;" one at Evansville, called "The Southern Hospital for the Insane," and one at Richmond, called "The Eastern Hospital for the Insane." At each of these institutions the patients receive the same care and attention given those at the Central Hospital.

The Indiana Institution for the Education of the Blind was established by an act of the Legislature in 1844-45. In the beginning the school was conducted in a rented build-

ing; afterward ground was purchased at Indianapolis, and in 1850 the present building was completed. It was then considered quite "out of town," but now it stands in the heart of the city, in the midst of beautiful and well kept grounds. Boys and girls under the age of twenty-one years are admitted to this school and are taught to read by the aid of the fingers. Many other useful things are taught, music receiving special attention, and some of the pupils become skillful musicians. Besides music and lessons from books, they are taught to perform many kinds of work which are useful to them in after life.

The Indiana Institution for the Education of the Deaf was established about the same time the school for the blind was opened. The Legislature adopted a private school which was being conducted at Indianapolis, and purchased a tract of land east of the city, and in 1850 the main portion of the present building was completed. Here those boys and girls who are unable to hear or speak are educated in the "sign language." They, too, are taught trades and different kinds of employment.

Indiana has always been among the first to care for her unfortunate citizens. Ours was the first State in the Union to provide a State institution for the insane and the first to establish a separate prison for women. Nor has she forgotten those who risked their lives to defend the Union, but has established homes for the Union veterans and their widows and orphan children.

The Indiana Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home.—Immediately after the close of the civil war a soldiers' home was established by private subscription at what was known as the "Knightstown Springs," in Rush County. Soon the



SOLDIERS' AND SAILORS' MONUMENT.

orphan children of soldiers were also admitted, and all were supported by private means.

In 1867 the Legislature assumed the support of the home, and it became the property of the State. In 1872 the soldiers were removed to the National Home at Dayton, Ohio, and the children were left in possession of the home at Knightstown. A few years later the feeble-minded children of the State were also included at the home, but were soon removed to a separate institution.

Since that time the institution has remained the Indiana Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home. Twice the buildings have been destroyed by fire and new ones erected in their places. At this home the orphan children of Union soldiers and sailors are educated and taught some useful trade by which they may become self-supporting.

The Indiana State Soldiers' Home.—From the time the soldiers were removed from the home at Knightstown until the year 1895 there was no State home for soldiers in Indiana. A National home had been located at Marion, Indiana, but it soon became crowded. Through the influence of the Grand Army of the Republic the Legislature of 1895 enacted a law to establish a State home for needy veterans and their wives and widows. About 250 acres of land was donated to the State by the citizens of LaFayette and Tippecanoe County, through the Grand Army of the Republic, and here, near the Tippecanoe battle-ground, where General Harrison and the Territorial troops defeated the designs of Tecumseh and the Prophet and destroyed the power of the Indians in Indiana, a home for the Union veterans and their wives and widows has been established.

The School for Feeble-Minded Youth.—There yet re-

mains another class of unfortunate children—the most unfortunate of all—for which the State has provided. In 1887, the Legislature appropriated money for the erection of a Home for the feeble-minded children of the State, to be located at Fort Wayne. As soon as completed these children were taken from the Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home and placed in this institution, where they are carefully taught such things as they can understand. Those who are capable of learning are taught various kinds of work. Each of these institutions is under the management of a Board of Trustees appointed by the Governor.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

The State Militia.—War with Spain.

It was very necessary in the early days of Indiana, that the people should unite and form some kind of an organization by which they could defend themselves against the attacks of the savages, and while yet a territory, military companies were formed for this purpose, and were called the militia.

The word "militia" means "a body of men in a State, enrolled for discipline, but engaged in actual service only in emergencies," thus differing from the "regulars" or United States troops, whose occupation is war, or military service.

The Territorial militia was frequently called into service to quell the Indian outbreaks. When Indiana became a State, the Indian troubles were still fresh in the memories of the people; in fact there was still danger from some of

the dissatisfied tribes who were jealous of the approach of the whites and still clung to their old hunting-grounds along the rivers and streams.

When the State Constitution was adopted in 1816, it provided for a State militia, and the early Governors, in their messages to the Legislature, urged that companies be formed, that in case of war with the savages, or any foreign power, they might be prepared to meet it.

For several years the militia force was strong in Indiana. In 1828 there were sixty-five regiments, organized into seven divisions, with about 40,000 men and officers, and in 1832, the total number of officers and men was 50,913. The Legislature enacted laws for the government of the Militia, which provided that it should meet at stated times for a general muster and drill; this was supposed to keep alive the military spirit. Members of the militia absent from muster were liable to a fine, and for years the drills were kept up. Next to the fourth of July, "Muster Day" was the greatest holiday of the year, and the drills, the most exciting show.

It must indeed, have been an imposing sight to see these companies of men marching down the street to the sound of the fife and drum while the gallant officers in bright uniforms and shoulder-straps, with plumes in their hats and swords by their sides, dashed up and down the lines on spirited horses, to the general delight of the spectators. Not unfrequently sham battles were fought, and then the interest grew most intense, and they were cheered to the echo by the admiring throng. True, the rank and file, that is, the common soldiers, had not much to boast of in the way of uniform, and often the squirrel rifle took the place of mus-

ket in the drill, but this did not matter much to the enthusiastic on-lookers.

The State troops accomplished but little, however, after the Indian troubles were settled, except to give a holiday now and then to the hard-working men and women, and perhaps furnish an opportunity for politicians to electioneer for their favorite candidates, and not unfrequently the holiday ended in a street fight, or other disgraceful scenes, which brought the militia into disrepute. Besides this, it was an expense to keep up the organization, and required a vast amount of time to perfect the drills, and the citizens as well as the members of the militia lost interest in it, and in 1834 the organization was abandoned.

When war was declared against Mexico in 1846, the military spirit of the people was again stirred, and the militia was reorganized. During the years 1846-47, five regiments were formed under Governor Whitcomb. After the close of the Mexican War, a number of laws were enacted governing the militia, based on the Constitution of 1851, but they were ineffectual, and when the war for the Union began in 1861, there were probably not more than a dozen companies, composed of about 500 men, in the State. After the close of the war, the militia organizations were continued.

The State militia is now called the "Indiana National Guards," and the Governor is the Commander-in-Chief and appoints and commissions all the officers. He may call these troops out whenever he considers it necessary, to suppress a riot or repel an invasion, and they must obey the call at once. The law divides the militia into two classes—called the "sedentary," and "active." The active militia

is the body of men who have actually enlisted and been mustered into the Indiana National Guards. The sedentary militia, is composed of all the able-bodied men in Indiana, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, who do not belong to the active militia. The State has the right to demand the service of all such men if needed.

A man who enlists in the Indiana National Guards must serve for three years unless sooner discharged. After serving his term of enlistment, he may re-enlist for two years, but no longer. After serving the second term of enlistment, he may be put on the "retired list."

The Indiana National Guards may consist of not more than forty-eight companies of infantry, three batteries of artillery, one signal corps, one hospital corps, and a band of musicians for each regiment, and each battalion of artillery.

A company of infantry is composed of not more than seventy-two privates, a captain, two lieutenants, five sergeants, four corporals, and one clerk. Four companies make a battalion and three battalions, or twelve companies make a regiment, which is commanded by a colonel. A battery consists of not more than thirty-two privates, a captain, two lieutenants and other officers.

The highest officer in the Indiana National Guards is a Brigadier-General, who commands the four regiments. Companies may be formed at any place; in case there should not be a sufficient number of enlistments at one place to form an entire company, parts of companies may be formed; these are called "platoons." The State furnishes arms and uniforms for the use of the officers and men, but while they are used by the troops, they are still the property of the State, and must be returned to the Quartermaster-General, whenever requested to do so.

The Brigadier-General may, with the approval of the Governor, order an encampment to be held for one week, at any place he may select within the State, which all the active militia members are required to attend. The State furnishes the tents, bedding and food for the troops, and they are drilled every day and are subject to all the rules that govern the regular army.

The Governor appoints an Adjutant-General and Quartermaster-General, who have offices in the State House, and keep the supplies and records of the Indiana National Guards. Each of these officers receives a salary for their services. The members of the militia receive no pay except when in camp, or in the active service of the State. Should the Governor order out the State militia, or any part of it, the men must obey the call at once.

During the administration of Governor Matthews the Indiana National Guards was thrice called out—once to quiet a disturbance among the coal-miners in the southwestern part of the State, once at the time of the railroad strikes in July, 1894, and again to enforce the laws of the State at Roby, in Lake County.

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR.

When the war between the United States and Spain began, and you looked on your map for the Island of Cuba, were you not surprised to find that Havana lies almost due south of the eastern part of Indiana, and that after leaving the coast of Florida, a few hours' sail across the Gulf of Mexico would land you on the shores of an island which was ruled by a government across the ocean?

Ever since the Island of Cuba was discovered, it had been in the possession of the Spaniards, but for many years it

was so badly governed that it was the scene of frequent revolutions, which greatly annoyed its neighbors, the Americans. According to the laws which govern nations, the United States was required to prevent any war vessels from being fitted out in our country for the use of the Cubans against the Spanish government. The Spanish officials were so cruel in dealing with the enemies of Spain, that many Cuban patriots removed to the United States and from this safe distance, incited and encouraged revolution in Cuba. Many Americans who lived in Cuba, or held property interests there, suffered greatly at the hands of the Spanish rulers, and for years the sentiment among Americans has been that Spain must relinquish her claim to Cuba and grant independence to the island.

The last revolution in Cuba was accompanied by such outrages as caused the United States Congress to seriously consider the matter of interference. While this subject was agitating the minds of the people and the President was trying to bring about Cuban independence, the entire country was thrown into intense excitement by the news of the destruction of the warship *Maine*, in Havana Harbor, February 15, 1898, supposed to be caused by the friends of Spain.

Naturally this event hastened the demand made by Congress that Spain withdraw her forces from the Island of Cuba. This Spain refused to do, and Congress declared war against the government of Spain, April 19, 1898. Four days later President McKinley issued a call for 125,000 volunteers; of this number Indiana's quota was four regiments of infantry and two batteries of artillery. How did she respond?

On the afternoon of April 25th, Governor Mount ordered the Indiana National Guard to assemble at Indianapolis, and called for volunteers. At sunrise the next day the Frankfort Company, commanded by Captain D. F. Allen, reached Indianapolis, and all day long the troops poured into the city. It was a repetition of the response to Governor Morton's call for volunteers thirty-seven years before. Many thousand men offered to enlist who were not allowed to go. A month later a call was made for 75,000 additional volunteers. In response to this call Indiana furnished one regiment and could have furnished many more.

The Indiana Regiments were designated and commanded as follows: One Hundred and Fifty-seventh, Colonel George M. Studebaker; One Hundred and Forty-eighth, Colonel Harry B. Smith; One Hundred Fifty-ninth, Colonel John F. Barnett; One Hundred Sixtieth, Colonel George W. Gunder; One Hundred Sixty-first, Colonel Winfield T. Durbin. Captain James B. Curtis commanded the Twenty-seventh and Captain William F. Ranke commanded the Twenty-eighth Battery. Will J. McKee was appointed Brigadier-General by President McKinley. Two companies of colored men were recruited, commanded by Captains J. M. Porter and John M. Buckner. One company of engineers and one signal corps were also recruited in the State.

The total number of officers and men in these commands was 7,301. Of these the Curtis Battery was the only one in active service, although Indiana's regiments were among the first to be ready to march. In addition to the State regiments, Indiana furnished the regular army with hundreds of men who participated in all the battles fought.

One of the most brilliant officers of the war, Major-General Henry W. Lawton, is an Indianian, who, after four years of service in the war for the Union, joined the United States army.

The war with Spain did not last long. The Spanish navy was destroyed at Manila and Santiago, and its army soon lost courage. The protocol, which is the name given to the first paper containing an outline of the terms of peace, was signed at Washington, August 12, 1898.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

Courts—Elections.

When people are gathered together in a town or a country, it is necessary that laws should be made to govern their conduct, in order to protect their lives and property, and to secure them from unjust treatment. Laws would be of no use if they were not enforced, and for this reason courts are established to decide what is lawful, and to compel people to obey the laws made for their government.

The first laws which governed the inhabitants of the present State of Indiana, were made by the French Commandants at Post Vincennes. They were purely military laws and the officer making them had power to execute them. When the Northwestern Territory became the property of the United States, a Governor and two Judges were appointed and given the power to adopt such laws of the original States as they thought were suited to the needs of the settlers. The first of these laws were published in 1788.

The Governor and Judges continued to make the laws until the Territorial Legislature was formed in 1799. In 1800 the Northwestern Territory was divided and Indiana Territory was formed, when the power to adopt the laws was again given to the Territorial Governor and Judges. This form of law-making continued until 1805, when the Indiana Territorial Legislature was organized, after which the Representatives and Legislative Council made the laws until Indiana became a State, and a State Legislature was organized.

The first court in Indiana was established by Colonel John Todd, who was Lieutenant of the "Illinois County," as the territory northwest of the Ohio was called. The court was composed of the Commandant of Fort Vincennes and several magistrates, who had power to enforce, as well as to make the laws.

The first general court of Indiana Territory was opened at Vincennes in 1801, by the Territorial judges. It was very difficult to enforce the law in so large a territory, especially in places distant from the seat of government, so the Legislature divided the country into three parts called "Judicial," or "Court Circuits," and arranged for holding court in each circuit. The Governor appointed a judge from every county in each of these court circuits, whose duty it was to hold court in the county to which he belonged.

The State Constitution of 1816 provided for a more extensive court system. The State was divided into three "circuits," and the Legislature elected a judge for each circuit, who was called a presiding judge, and was supposed to be very learned in the law. The people in every county

elected two associate judges, who were not necessarily lawyers.

The presiding judge traveled through his circuit, and with the assistance of the associate judges held court in every county. Each court circuit was very large, being composed of a number of counties; the counties themselves were much larger than they now are, so judges and lawyers were obliged to travel long distances on horse-back, through thinly settled parts of the country to attend court; and when they completed the circuit, they began over again, just as the "circuit riders" did.

On these journeys they often stopped at some settler's cabin to spend the night. These humble homes were always open to travelers who brought them news from the outside world, and broke the monotony of their lives. Many of these lawyers were fine story-tellers, and to while away the long evenings, and to make themselves agreeable to their entertainers, they gathered with the family around the bright blazing logs in the open fire-place, and told them bits of their own experience, or stories they had read, or heard, or imagined, until far into the night. This was a favorite pastime in those days, when books and papers were scarce, and a good story-teller was always a welcome guest. The next morning the travelers continued their journey, and when they reached the place where they were to hold court, they often found no court-house, and the sessions were held at the cabin of a settler, or under the shelter of the trees.

Besides these circuit courts, a Supreme Court was organized. This was the highest court in the State, and consisted of three supreme judges, who held court at the State cap-

ital. As the population of the State increased, other counties were organized, the circuits were divided and the number of courts increased; thus the circuits became smaller and the number of judges greater. There are at present fifty-five "court circuits" in Indiana, some of them consisting of two or three counties, others of but one. This number may be changed by the Legislature whenever it is considered necessary.

The Justice's Court.—The lowest court in the State, is held by the Justice of the Peace, elected by the voters of a township, who need not be a lawyer. Every township has one Justice of the Peace, and may have three. A suit for more than \$200 cannot be brought before a Justice of the Peace, and only persons accused of small offenses can be tried by him; those accused of greater crimes may be brought before him and "bound over to court"—that is, their case is sent to the "Circuit Court," to be tried by the judge of the circuit.

A constable is elected for every Justice of the Peace, who obeys his orders, and has power to arrest any person he sees commit a disorderly or criminal act. In most cities the Mayor may try all cases that can be tried by the Justice of the Peace.

The Circuit Court.—In every county there is a Circuit Court, where all cases are tried which cannot be brought before a Justice of the Peace. The Circuit Judge presides over this court. Criminals are tried in the Circuit Court, and in case of the death of a person owning property, his estate is settled through this court. The records of the Circuit Court are kept by the County Clerk, and the Sheriff executes its orders.

The Judge does not always decide cases tried before him, although he must always be present at the trial; the Constitution gives every citizen the right to a trial by jury, in all cases. A jury consists of twelve men selected to decide the case, and must be citizens of the county where the trial is held. After they have heard all that the witnesses on both sides have to say—which is called the testimony—they retire to a room called the “jury-room,” and discuss the case and decide what shall be done with it. When the jury does not agree, the case must be tried over again.

The Superior Court.—Sometimes there is too much business in a county for the Circuit Court to perform, and the Legislature creates a court called the “Superior Court.” These Superior Courts are higher than the Justices’ Courts, but not so high as the Circuit Courts. They cannot try criminal cases, nor settle estates; in other respects they are much like the Circuit Courts. But few counties in Indiana have Superior Courts.

The Criminal Court.—In Marion County, in which Indianapolis is situated, there is a court called the “Criminal Court,” which only tries persons charged with crime. In this county the Circuit Court does not try this class of persons.

The Supreme Court.—The Supreme Court is the highest court in the State. It holds its sessions in the State House in Indianapolis. This court has five Judges elected by the people, and a clerk called the Clerk of the Supreme Court, who is also elected by the people. The officer who executes the orders of this court is called the Sheriff of the Supreme Court and is appointed by the Judges.

The Supreme Court only tries cases which are appealed

from the Circuit Court; that is, when a party to a law-suit is dissatisfied with the decision of the Judge or the jury, he can carry it to the Supreme Court, to be tried by the Supreme Judges. This is called an appeal. The testimony of the witnesses and all the proceedings of the Circuit Court are carefully written out, and forwarded through the proper persons, to the Supreme Court, and examined by the Supreme Judges, who determine whether the case has been fairly tried according to the law; if so, they "confirm the decision of the lower court"—that is, they declare that the case has been properly tried, and fairly decided, and there can be no further action. If, however, they find that the proceedings do not conform to the law, or if mistakes have been made in the trial, they "reverse the decision"—that is, they send it back to be tried again. This court also decides whether the laws made by the Legislature are in harmony with the Constitution.

The Appellate Court.—There is another State court called the Appellate Court, created temporarily, to assist the Supreme Judges to bring up the work of the Supreme Court, and is composed of Appellate Judges elected by the people. The proceedings of this court are conducted much like that of the Supreme Court.

Attorneys at law, or lawyers, as they are commonly called, are men supposed to be learned in the law, who are employed to represent those who have cases in court. The person who employs an attorney is called a "client," and the lawyer employed looks after the interests of his client and sees that he is fairly treated. The person making complaint to the court is called the "plaintiff;" the person of whom he complains is called the "defendant," because it is

left for him to defend himself against the charges made. The decision of the jury is called the "verdict."

The Grand Jury.—There is another court in each county in Indiana, called the "Court of the Grand Jury," which is composed of six men, called "Grand Jurors." They hold secret sessions to investigate and determine if any person has committed a crime in the county. They prescribe no penalty, or punishment for those guilty of violating the law, but draw up an "indictment," or complaint, and upon this they are tried in the Circuit Court.

Supreme Judges are elected for six years; Circuit Judges for six years; Appellate Judges for four years; Superior Judges for four years; Justices of the Peace for four years.

ELECTIONS.

Every two years a general State and County election is held in Indiana. The time fixed by law for these elections, is the first Tuesday after the first Monday in November of the evenly numbered years. Town elections are held on the first Monday, and most city elections on the first Tuesday in May, each alternate year. To prevent illegal voting, each county, city and town is divided into small districts called "precincts." Each precinct contains not more than two hundred and fifty, nor less than two hundred voters. For convenience, the precincts may be changed from time to time.

Each voter in Indiana must be a citizen of the United States, and must have lived in the State for at least six months preceding the election. He must also have lived in the township sixty days, and in the precinct thirty days preceding the day of the election. All men (except idiots

and criminals) who have reached the age of twenty-one years, who are citizens of the United States, who have lived in the State six months, in the township sixty days and in the precinct thirty days, are entitled to vote at all national, State and county elections.

Before the day of election, a canvass is made by committees from each political party, and the name of every man entitled to vote, and the political party to which he belongs, is carefully recorded, and the records kept at the "polls," as the voting places are called, on election day; and if any suspicious person should attempt to vote, he may be challenged; that is, objections to his vote may be made, and he must prove to the satisfaction of the election officers, that he is a legal voter, before he is allowed to vote.

The Board of County Commissioners appoints an election board for every precinct, consisting of an inspector and two judges, whose duty it is to preside at elections and see that they are conducted according to law. This board appoints two clerks, called "poll clerks," who each keep a list of the names of persons voting, and of the number of votes cast for each candidate. Each clerk must also write his initials on the back of every ballot cast.

A ballot, is a paper on which the names of candidates are printed. The State furnishes the ballots on which are printed the names of the candidates for all State offices, and the counties furnish the ballots on which are printed the names of the candidates for Congress, and for county and township offices. When a man wishes to vote, he is given one of these printed ballots; with a pencil he marks opposite the name of the candidate for whom he desires to vote, and it is placed in the ballot box.

When the polls are closed—that is, when the time has passed which is allowed for holding the election, the ballots are counted and burned, and the members of the election board sign the record of each clerk. The inspector takes one of these records, or certificates, as they are called, and one of the judges takes the other, and on Thursday following the election, the inspector meets all the other inspectors in the county, at the court-house, and together they count all the votes cast in the county.

When this is done, they make out a certificate showing the result of the election, which they sign and give to the clerk of the court. From this report the clerk makes out a certificate of the number of votes in the county cast for candidates for State offices, and sends it to the Secretary of State. From these reports sent from the various counties, the result of the vote for State officers is obtained.

The people do not vote directly for the President and Vice-President of the United States, but vote for what are called "Electors." In each State the number of electors is equal to the number of Senators and Representatives which the State has in Congress; for example, Indiana, like every State, has two Senators, and also has thirteen Representatives to Congress, so the number of electors to which our State is entitled is fifteen. Two of these electors are nominated by the parties in their State Conventions, and are called "electors at large," and the party conventions in each district nominate one elector. The names of these electors are printed on the State ticket, or ballot, and voted for, the same as are other candidates.

On a certain day the electors meet at the State capital, and each one votes for the candidates for President and

Vice-President, which his party has nominated. A copy of the result of this vote is sent in a sealed package to the Vice-President of the United States, who is also President of the Senate, and on a given day both houses of Congress meet together, and tellers are appointed to count the votes. The Vice-President breaks the seals of all the packages received from all the States and reads the results, which the tellers record.

When all the reports, or returns have been read and recorded, and the result obtained, the Vice-President announces that the candidate who has received the largest vote for President, and the candidate who has received the largest vote for Vice-President, are elected, and a certificate of that fact is signed by him. That completes the election of President and Vice-President of the United States. The man who is elected must have a majority of all the votes cast; that is, he must have at least one more than half of all the votes. If it should happen that no candidate has a majority, then the United States House of Representatives must elect the President and the Senate must elect the Vice-President, from the candidates voted for by the electors.

CHAPTER XXXV.

Roads and Highways—Drainage.

One of the greatest difficulties which the early settlers had to encounter was the lack of roads through the country. The Indian trails, which were simply paths through the forests, made by the Indians as they traveled from one Indian

village to another, along the rivers and other streams, were the first roads in Indiana. When the settlers came they made roadways by cutting down such trees as stood in the way, and marked them by "blazing," or chopping the trees which stood on either side. No attempt was made to improve the roads, and the ground was so soft that in some seasons of the year these roads were almost, if not quite impassable. In marshy places, small trees, or "saplings" were cut down, chopped into pieces of the required length, and placed side by side across the road, to keep the horses and oxen from miring in the mud; these were called "corduroy roads."

As the country settled the people of a neighborhood united and built roads by throwing up the ground, filling in the low places with dirt and digging trenches to carry off the water. These were called "dirt roads." They were an improvement over the "blazed" roadways, but they too, became almost impassable during some seasons of the year.

The lack of good roads greatly retarded the commerce of the country. The internal improvement system which bankrupted the State, was the outgrowth of this need. The building of the National and Michigan roads greatly advanced the development of Indiana and many plans were adopted for the improvement of the road system, all of which were helpful, and the drainage of the land did much to aid in producing good roads, by carrying off the water and allowing the ground to become dry and solid.

In building roads in Indiana, different materials were used. Portions of the National and Michigan roads, ~~were~~ built of planks, made from the great trees which covered the ground. In some places charcoal was used for a road-

bed, but both these materials were unsatisfactory; crushed stone and gravel were found to be the best material for road making, and as the country abounds in rich deposits of gravel, it has become the chief material used for country roads.

The first gravel roads in Indiana, were built by private companies, and were the beginning of the present excellent road system. The companies, or corporations which built and kept them in repair, built toll-houses a few miles apart, in which a toll-keeper lived, who collected a small fee from those who traveled the road on horse-back, or in carriages or wagons, and for all stock driven over the road. This kept up the expenses of the roads, and often paid the companies owning them a good profit on the money invested.

Toll roads were operated for several years, but were finally purchased by the counties through which they passed, and were made free to the public, the expense of keeping them in repair being paid by a tax on the property of those who lived in the vicinity of the road.

In locating roads for the use of the public, the Board of County Commissioners have the power to determine where the road shall be built. The people in a community desiring a road, send a "petition," or written request for a road, signed by the citizens, to the commissioners, who, upon receiving it, appoint men, called "road viewers," to examine the proposed roadway, and decide if it is for the best interest of the majority of the people of that community, that such a road should be built, and to locate the route.

If they report in favor of building it, the persons through whose land it passes, are allowed damages. Like the ditches, road-making has caused much "litigation," or law

suits among the settlers in Indiana. After the commissioners have decided where a road shall be located, the trustees of the townships through which it passes, must order it opened, and put in condition for travel. Every township is divided into road districts, and a road supervisor appointed in each district, whose duty it is to see that roads are opened and kept in repair.

Every able-bodied man in the State, who is between the years of twenty-one and fifty, is required to work on the public roads in his district, from two to four days every year, or hire a substitute to work in his place. Those refusing to work, or furnish a substitute, may be arrested and fined. The road supervisor superintends the work and notifies the men when they are expected to work on the roads. Idiots, insane, deaf and dumb and blind men are not required to work on roads or to furnish substitutes.

A tax is levied on each one hundred dollars' worth of property in a township for the purpose of keeping the roads in repair. When the people living near a public road, or highway, wish to have it made a free gravel road, they sign a petition, or written request, which they send to the Board of County Commissioners, who appoint men to investigate the case and decide whether, in their opinion, it is for the public welfare to build it. If they report favorably, the people whose land lies within a certain distance of the road, and who will be benefited by it, are taxed to procure money with which to build it. All bridges costing more than \$25 are built and kept in repair by the county, smaller ones by the townships.

Before the adoption of the present State Constitution, the Legislature made laws for building roads between certain

important places, and many roads were built under them. The highways are the property of the public, and can be used for no other purpose. A person obstructing, or damaging them in any way, may be arrested and fined.

DRAINAGE.

Before the country was settled—before Indiana became a State, and for a long time afterward, the land was very wet. Miles and miles of swamps, thickly grown up in brushwood and timber, among which lay fallen trees, overgrown with tangled vines and mosses, and covered with stagnant water the greater part of the year, were found in many parts of the State.

The country was full of streams that frequently overflowed their banks, and during times of heavy rains much of the land was covered with water, which, having no outlet, sank into the ground and made it unfit for cultivation. Not only this, but the vapors arising from this stagnant and impure water, filled the air with poisonous matter which made it very unhealthful, and caused much sickness among the settlers. This gave Indiana the reputation of being a very undesirable place in which to live.

When the land in Indiana was surveyed and placed on sale, so much of this swamp land was considered worthless, that Congress donated 1,264,833 acres of it to the State. To induce the settlers to drain the swamps, it was offered to them at a very low price, providing they would dig drains or trenches which would allow the water to flow from off the land; at the same time, the cost of the ditches was deducted from the price of the land.

By and by, when farms were cleared, the settlers began

to see the necessity of draining the entire country to get rid of the surplus water, and prevent the streams from overflowing the country and damaging the land and crops; so they began to dig trenches, or ditches through their farms, ending them at some creek, or other natural outlet. In some localities where there were no such natural outlets for the water, very large ditches, like small canals, were dug—some of them many miles in length, and ending at some creek or river; these were left open, and the smaller ditches emptied into them. These small ditches were covered with dirt as are most of the ditches to-day.

In the beginning, after a ditch was dug, pieces of timber were placed on both sides of the trench, and on the top of these, reaching from one side to the other, were placed other pieces of timber, which made a box-like opening in the middle of the ditch, through which the water flowed, and prevented the dirt from falling in and filling up the trench. After the timbers were in place, the dirt was thrown back into the trench and the ground cultivated as though it had not been disturbed. Later on, the manufacture of tile for ditch purposes, filled a long-felt want, and is now generally used for drainage.

The drainage of the land has caused a great amount of trouble in the country. Laws were made which authorized the proper officers to order ditches made wherever it seemed best for the public welfare, and the land owners who were supposed to be benefited by them, were taxed to pay the cost. This was not always agreeable, and law-suits and neighborhood quarrels were often the result; but the country was greatly benefited, and farmers now realize that only by good drainage can land be made to yield the surest crops.

And so from this custom of ditching the land, a great system of underground drainage has grown up in Indiana. Could we look a few feet beneath the surface of the ground, we would be interested to see the wonderful net-work of tile, which carries off the water that falls upon the ground. There are thousands of miles of it, and it is impossible to estimate the value these underground drains are to the country. They have carried off the excess of water from the land; the swamps have been drained by them and are now the most fertile parts of the country. Many of the small streams have entirely disappeared, and but seldom is there much damage done by floods, except in the region of the larger rivers and streams.

By this system of drainage the climate has been made healthful, and chills and fever, once the bane of Indiana, are seldom heard of.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

Physical Indiana—Natural Resources.

The name "Indiana" came from the word Indian, and of all the States in the Union, none have so pleasing a name to the native "Hoosier." Just when the name was first applied to any part of the territory is not certainly known, but it is said that a company of traders who bought from the Indians a tract of land lying along the Ohio River, called it "Indiana"—adding the final "a" to give it a feminine sound, and from this the Territory, and afterward the State was named. However this may be, it is an appropriate name, and one of which we may well be proud.

We have traced the development of Indiana from the time of its earliest exploration until it became a great and prosperous State; now, let us talk about its physical aspects—that is, the surface of the country and its natural resources.

Indiana is situated in the center of what is called the “Great Central Basin of North America,” at nearly an equal distance from the Mississippi River on the west, and the Alleghany Mountains on the east, and from the Gulf of Mexico on the south, and the “Water-Sheds” between the Great Lakes and Hudson Bay on the north.

The general character of the country is a gently undulating, or wave-like plain, with a gradual slope toward the southwest. There are no mountains in Indiana, but in the southern counties along the Ohio River, there is a line of hills extending back into the country from ten to thirty miles. These hills are called “The Knobs;” they are very picturesque, and some of them rise to a height of four or five hundred feet above low water in the river.

From the Ohio River to the Wabash, the country was at one time almost entirely covered with a heavy growth of forest trees, through whose low spreading branches the sunlight could scarcely penetrate, causing a perpetual twilight by day and intense darkness by night, while in many places a dense growth of brushwood, made travel very difficult, indeed. The awful stillness of the forest was only broken by the song of the birds and the snarl of wild beasts.

North of the Wabash the character of the country changed. Here also, the land was covered with gigantic trees, but was almost free from undergrowth, and the branches were so high from the ground, that it was an easy

matter for horsemen to ride beneath them. These timber lands were called "oak openings," although many walnut and other trees grew among the oaks. Many of the native trees of Indiana were from ninety to one hundred and twenty feet high, and some of them were five feet in diameter. There are more than one hundred varieties of trees native to the State, a large per cent. of which were valuable as timber. No State in Central United States has a greater variety, or more valuable trees than Indiana.

In portions of the western and northwestern part of the State, stretch miles and miles of prairie lands, which, when first known, were covered with a luxuriant growth of grass, dotted with wild flowers of every hue. Some of these prairies were very low, wet marsh lands, unfit for cultivation until after the country was well drained. The northern part of the State is diversified by many beautiful little lakes, some of them quite large enough for sailing small steam yachts, and near these summer hotels have been built, and there many people from the cities and towns spend the hot months.

The soil in northern Indiana is very sandy. On the northeast shore of Lake Michigan the winds have piled up the sand in great ridges or mounds, called "sand dunes," some of them 150 feet high. The soil of the greater part of Indiana is rich and productive, about ninety per cent. being susceptible of cultivation—that is, ninety out of every one hundred acres can be cultivated with the plow. A large portion of the land in Indiana was at one time so wet and swampy, that it was considered of little value until well drained.

Before the country was settled, the forests and prairies

were full of birds, many varieties of which are not now found in the State. Among these was the bald-headed eagle, which, like the game of the forests, has long since disappeared. When the territory was first known, buffaloes were to be seen in countless numbers on the prairies of western Indiana. Elk and deer were common, as also were bears, wolves, panthers, beaver, otter, wild-cat, porcupines and many other animals which have disappeared with the forests and the red men.

The lakes and streams were full of fish, and wild ducks, turkeys and other feathered game were found in great numbers on the prairies and marshes. A great variety of plants and ferns are native to Indiana; over a thousand species have been discovered, and more than fifty native grasses.

There are other interesting facts concerning Indiana, which men have discovered by going beneath the surface of the ground and searching out the secrets hidden there. In southwestern Indiana vast beds of coal are found underlying the surface of the ground; in the southeastern part of the State valuable building stone is found imbedded in the earth, while petroleum, and natural gas are secreted hundreds of feet below the surface, in certain parts of the State. The hills of southern Indiana are full of wonderful caves, containing strange formations and beautiful scenery. One of these caves—the Wyandotte, in Crawford County, rivals in beauty, if not in extent, the famous Mammoth Cave of Kentucky. Many mineral springs and artesian wells are also found in the southern part of the State.

Nature has generously provided Indiana with the sources of great wealth. It only requires industry and perseverance on the part of her people to develop the great natural

resources which have been stored up for their use. The first natural product of Indiana, or the first product which brought money to the settlers, was the furs and skins of animals. This resource has long been exhausted. The gigantic growth of timber, which would now be worth more than the price of the land on which it grew, was another natural resource. Millions of dollars' worth of this valuable timber was cut down and burned, to clear the land for cultivation. Coal is one of the most valuable of the natural products of Indiana, vast fields of which underlie the western and southwestern portions of the State, ranging from ten to sixty miles in width. Coal mines are being operated in seventeen different counties, which give employment to thousands of men and yield more than four millions of tons of coal every year.

Another natural resource and a great wealth producing product, is the immense quantity of building stone which is found in several counties in the southeastern part of the State. No State in the Union produces better stone for building purposes than Indiana, and it is shipped to all parts of the United States. Some of the Government buildings and finest business blocks in the country are constructed of stone taken from Indiana stone quarries.

Valuable deposits of fine clay is another natural resource of which Indiana can boast. This product is principally found in the northwestern counties. From this material brick, tile and different kinds of ware are made.

The last great secret which nature has yielded to man's investigation, is the wonderful product of natural gas, which has been discovered in more than twenty counties in Indiana. Its discovery has aided in the development of

Many industries, and greatly advanced the commerce of the State.

Petroleum is another natural product of Indiana. The main field of this product is northeast of the center of the State, although it is found in smaller quantities in other parts of the State. Iron has been found in small quantities, but it is of inferior quality, and can scarcely be classed among its paying productions. Gold has also been found in small quantities in portions of southern Indiana.

Aside from the natural resources of Indiana, there are many manufactured products which may be counted among the resources of the State. Steamboat and railroad coaches are built along the Ohio River, at Jeffersonville and New Albany; cars, wagons, carriages and other vehicles, bicycles, farming implements of iron and wood, various kinds of machinery, glassware, plate glass, tin-plate, zinc, tile, brick, encaustic tile, pottery, terra cotta, stone-ware, paper, cotton and woolen cloth and countless other articles are manufactured in Indiana.

But chief among the industries of the State is agriculture, or farming. Indiana is a State of small farms and cozy homes. The majority of the farmers own their own farms and cultivate them themselves. The principal produce raised is corn, wheat, grass, or hay, vegetables, fruit, and live stock.

Farming has become a great science, and the most successful farmers are those who best understand the soil they cultivate and the use to which it is best adapted.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

Biographical Sketches of Indiana Governors.

William Henry Harrison, the first Governor of the Indiana Territory, was born in Virginia, February 9th, 1773. His father was a soldier in the Revolutionary War, and fought under both General St. Clair and General Wayne. On resignation of Winthrop Sargent, in 1796, William Henry Harrison was appointed Secretary of the Northwestern Territory, to serve under his father's old commander General St. Clair, who was Governor of the Territory. In 1799, he was elected the first delegate to the United States Congress from the Northwestern Territory; and on May 13th, 1800, at the age of 27 years, he was appointed Governor of Indiana Territory, which office he continued to fill until 1812, when he resigned to accept the appointment of Brigadier-General of the Army of the Northwestern Frontier. At the close of the war with Great Britain in 1814, he resigned his commission and retired to his farm at North Bend, near Cincinnati, Ohio. In 1816, he was elected a Representative to the Congress of the United States from the State of Ohio, and served in this position for three years. For two years he served Ohio as a Senator in the State Legislature, after which he was elected United States Senator from Ohio. In 1840, General Harrison was elected President of the United States, and was inaugurated March 4th, 1841; but his career as highest officer in the nation was indeed brief; one month from the day he became President, he died, and was buried at his old home at North Bend,

Ohio. The years during which General Harrison served as Territorial Governor were eventful ones in the history of Indiana. It was his duty to preserve peace with the Indians, and to secure as much land from them as possible. During the twelve years he served as Governor, he succeeded in extinguishing the Indian titles to more than 29,000,000 acres of land. It was also his task to quell the outbreaks of the savages in Indiana Territory and it was through his efforts and good generalship that the schemes of Tecumseh and the Prophet were defeated and the power of the Indians broken. Governor Harrison was one of the most influential men in early Indiana, and was greatly loved and honored by her people.

John Gibson, Acting Governor of Indiana Territory, was born at Lancaster, Pennsylvania, May 23d, 1740. When but eighteen years old he took part in a British expedition against the French, at Fort Du Quesne, (afterward called Fort Pitt) where the city of Pittsburg is now situated. After its capture, he settled at the fort and began to trade with the Indians. At one time, he with other white men, was captured by the savages, and condemned to be burned at the stake, but his life was saved by an old squaw, who had lost a son in battle, and adopted the young trader to take his place in her family. He lived among the Indians for several years, learned their language and became familiar with their manners and customs. He was dissatisfied with life among the savages, however, and making his escape, returned to Fort Pitt, and resumed his former occupation of trader. When the war of the Revolution began, Colonel Gibson raised a regiment, and was afterward placed in command of the troops on the western frontier, and when

the war ended, he again returned to Pittsburg and continued to follow his old occupation of trading with the Indians. General Gibson was a member of the Constitutional Convention of the State of Pennsylvania, and was appointed judge of the court of his county, and was General of the Pennsylvania militia. In 1800, he was appointed Secretary of the Territory of Indiana, and before the arrival of Governor Harrison at Vincennes, he began to organize the Territorial government. While Governor Harrison was away, commanding the Northwestern troops in an expedition against the Indians, General Gibson became Acting Governor of Indiana Territory, performing all the duties of that office, as well as those of Territorial Secretary. He served in this double capacity for about one year. When Indiana became a State, General Gibson remained for a time at Vincennes; later he removed to Pennsylvania, and died near Pittsburg, April 10th, 1822, at the age of 82 years. General Gibson was a well educated, capable man; he discharged his official duties in a manner which won the confidence and esteem of those who knew him, and he enjoyed the merited friendship and good-will of those about him.

Thomas Posey was Indiana's last Territorial Governor. He, like Governor Harrison, was a native of Virginia, and was born July 9th, 1750, on a farm on the banks of the Potomac River. In 1774, he joined an expedition against the Indians, and won distinction by his coolness and bravery. Like General Gibson, he was a Revolutionary soldier, and raised a company of men and fought for American Independence, receiving the title of Major, then that of General; continuing his military career, he served under

General Anthony Wayne, in the Northwestern Army, and was Captain of a Louisiana company, in the war of 1812. Having taken up his residence in Louisiana, he was elected to the Senate of that State. On March 3d, 1813, President Madison appointed him Governor of Indiana Territory, to succeed Acting Governor Gibson. He entered upon his duties as Governor at the age of 63 years. Soon afterward the Territorial Capital was removed to Corydon. Governor Posey, whose health was delicate, finding the climate did not agree with him, removed to Jeffersonville, where he continued to make his home. During his official term, the Constitutional Convention, which made Indiana a State, was held at Corydon, and by reason of this change in the government, the office of Territorial Governor became void. Governor Posey was a candidate for Governor of the State of Indiana, but was defeated by Jonathan Jennings. Afterward, he was appointed Indian agent for the Illinois Territory, and died at Shawneetown, Illinois, March 19th, 1818. Governor Posey was an amiable Christian gentleman, and was active in spreading the truths of the Bible, and was foremost in all good works. He was tall and commanding in person, with a handsome face, and graceful easy manners.

Jonathan Jennings.—After the adoption of the State Constitution of 1816, an election was held for the purpose of choosing a Governor for the new State. The choice fell upon Jonathan Jennings, and he became the first Governor of the State of Indiana. Jonathan Jennings was born in New Jersey, in the year 1784. After completing his education, while still a very young man, he removed to Jeffersonville, Indiana, where he completed the study of law, afterward serving as clerk of the Territorial Legislature.

He was strongly opposed to the institution of slavery, which was then attracting much attention in Indiana Territory, and in the race for Territorial Delegate to Congress, in 1809, he defeated Thomas Randolph, who favored it. He was re-elected Delegate to Congress in 1811, and again in 1813. The bill enabling Indiana to become a State, was reported to Congress by Mr. Jennings, and when the Constitutional Convention was held in 1816, he was elected a delegate and was chosen president of the convention. Mr. Jennings was but 32 years old when he became the first Governor of Indiana. During his administration the entire machinery of State was put in motion, and many serious problems were met and disposed of. In 1818, President Monroe appointed Governor Jennings a commissioner to a treaty with the Indians, at St. Mary's, Ohio, and he requested Christopher Harrison, Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana, to come to Corydon, to perform the duties of Governor during his absence. Mr. Harrison went to Corydon and took possession of the Governor's office, and over this a strange contest arose. The Constitution of Indiana prohibits the Governor from holding any office under the United States government, and Lieutenant-Governor Harrison maintained that by accepting the appointment of commissioner, Governor Jennings had forfeited his office of Governor, and when Mr. Jennings returned he refused to vacate the office, claiming that he, not Mr. Jennings, was Governor of Indiana. Mr. Jennings did not agree with him, however, and demanded his office; whereupon Mr. Harrison took the seal of the State and opened another office. It was a peculiar situation, and the officers of the State were puzzled to know which of the two men claiming

to be Governor, was entitled to their recognition. When the Legislature met in December, 1818, committees from both branches of that body were appointed to wait upon Lieutenant-Governor Harrison to inform him that the General Assembly was in session and ready to receive any communication he was pleased to make. By this act, the authority of the Lieutenant-Governor was recognized; but a committee was afterward appointed to investigate the trouble between the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor, which investigation finally ended in the recognition of Governor Jennings. Upon this Lieutenant-Governor Harrison resigned his office, and in 1819, was a candidate for Governor against Mr. Jennings. The election resulted in the re-election of Governor Jennings. The following year he was appointed a commissioner to select a permanent location for a State Capital. In 1822, Governor Jennings was elected a Representative to the United States Congress, and resigned his office of Governor to accept this position and the unexpired term of three months was filled by Ratliff Boone, Lieutenant-Governor. For eight consecutive years, Mr. Jennings represented his district in Congress. In 1830 he was again a candidate for re-election, but was defeated by General John Carr. Governor Jennings left Washington and retired to his home near Charleston, Indiana, afterward serving under President Jackson as a commissioner to treat with the Indians for lands in northern Indiana and southern Michigan; in this capacity he exercised great influence with the northern tribes. On July 26th, 1834, Governor Jennings died at his home, and was buried at Charleston. He was a man of culture and refinement; was of medium height, heavy-set, with fair complexion, blue eyes and light

hair. His manner was gentle and kind and he was greatly loved and respected by those who knew him.

Ratliff Boone was second Governor of Indiana, by resignation of Governor Jennings. Writers disagree as to his birthplace, some claiming that North Carolina is the State of his birth, others that he was born in Georgia; but all agree that he first saw the light in 1781. A gunsmith by trade, he came to Indiana in 1809, and was the first treasurer of Warrick County. In 1816 he was elected a member of the first General Assembly of Indiana and in 1818 was elected State Senator. In 1819, he was elected Lieutenant-Governor, and when Governor Jennings resigned his office to accept the position of Representative to the United States Congress he became Acting Governor of Indiana, and filled the unexpired term. In 1822 he was re-elected, but soon resigned the office to become a candidate for Representative to Congress. He was elected to this position and served continuously until 1839. After leaving Congress he removed to Missouri, and became identified with the public affairs of that State. He died in Missouri, November 20th, 1844. He was forty years old when he became Acting Governor of Indiana, and died at the age of sixty-three years. He was of medium height, straight and spare in person, with a low receding forehead. He was a courageous, self-reliant man, and in character suited to the life of the pioneer.

William Hendricks, Indiana's third Governor, was a native of Pennsylvania, and was born at Ligonier, in 1783. He came to Madison, Indiana, in 1814, and entered into the practice of law; that same year he was elected a member of the Territorial Legislature (for Indiana was still a

territory), and was chosen Speaker of the House of Representatives. When the Constitutional Convention was held in 1816, Mr. Hendricks was made Secretary, and when Indiana became a State, he was elected a Representative to the United States Congress, and was twice re-elected to this honorable position. In 1822, when 39 years of age, he was unanimously elected Governor of the State of Indiana. Before his term of office expired, however, the Legislature elected him a United States Senator. He resigned his office of Governor to accept the honor bestowed upon him by the General Assembly of his State. Twice he was re-elected, and in 1839, retired to private life, having served the State more than twenty years. In addition to this public service, Mr. Hendricks edited the second newspaper in the State. It was called "The Eagle," and was published at Madison. William Wesley Woollen, in his *Biographical and Historical Sketches of Early Indiana*, says: "William Hendricks had as much to do with laying the foundation of this great State and commencing its superstructure as any other man, excepting Jonathan Jennings, only, and yet how few there are who know he ever lived." This author further says: "Men who found empires should not be forgotten. They plant the tree of civil liberty, and water its roots, while those who come after them but trim its branches and preserve its symmetry. If they plant carelessly and in poor soil the tree will have but sickly growth. That the men who planted Indiana in the wilderness planted wisely and well, is evidenced by its wonderful growth." For many years Governor Hendricks was the most popular man in Indiana. He was tall, and well formed, with blue eyes, auburn hair and fair complexion. His manner was well

bred and dignified. He died at Madison, in May, 1850, at the age of 67 years, and was buried in his family vault at Madison.

James Brown Ray, fourth Governor of Indiana, was born in Jefferson County, Kentucky, February 19th, 1794, and in 1818 removed to Brookville, Indiana, and began the practice of law. Here he soon became influential among the leading men of the community. In 1822 he was elected to the State Senate, serving as President of the Senate until the resignation of Governor Hendricks in 1825, when he became Acting Governor of Indiana. At the expiration of his term of office he was elected Governor, at the age of 31 years. The years during which he served as Governor were somewhat uneventful in the history of the State. The people were busy in developing their farms and settling the country. The machinery of State had been put in motion, and it was a period of quiet growth and steady advancement. Governor Ray, together with General Carr and General Tipton, was appointed a commissioner to secure a treaty with the Pottawattomie Indians, and succeeded in securing from them a large amount of land in the northern part of the State. Through the influence of Governor Ray, the Pottawattomies donated a large tract of land for the purpose of building the Michigan road. The acceptance of this appointment under the United States government caused Governor Ray similar trouble to that which came so near losing Governor Jennings his official position, but was averted in much the same manner. It was during this period that the murder of the Indians by white men, near Pendleton took place. It was a dream of Governor Ray, in later years, to concentrate the railroads of the country at

Indianapolis, and make a grand railroad center of the Capital City. There was so little about the city in the woods to encourage such a scheme, that men looked upon it as a "crazy whim," and the Governor was considered a little wrong in his mind; but the "whim" of Governor Ray has been more than realized, and Indianapolis has become the greatest inland railroad center in the country. Governor Ray was a candidate for Congress in 1837, but was defeated. At one time he was a very popular and influential man in Indiana. He was a man of marked eccentricities which seemed to increase with his years. In 1845, Governor Ray was stricken with cholera and died at the age of 51 years. His resting place is Spring Grove Cemetery, near Cincinnati. He was a remarkably fine looking man, tall and straight, with a handsome, intellectual face; he wore his hair long and tied in a "queue," after the fashion of the early days.

Noah Noble, like both Indiana's Territorial Governors, was a Virginian, and was born January 15th, 1794. His childhood was spent in Kentucky, his parents having emigrated to that State when he was a small child. Like Governor Ray, he removed to Brookville, Indiana, which was at one time the most important town in the State. Here he was twice elected sheriff of Franklin County, and in 1824 was chosen a Representative to the State Legislature, after which he was appointed receiver of the public moneys for the land office in Indianapolis, and served for three years. In 1830 he was appointed a commissioner to assist in locating and laying out the Michigan road. In 1831, at the age of thirty-seven years, he was elected Governor of Indiana and was re-elected to the same honorable position in 1834.

During his term of office the internal improvement system was in operation; he was one of its strongest advocates, and after his second term of office expired, he was appointed one of the Board of Commissioners for Internal Improvements. Although Governor Noble was a very popular man in Indiana, his promotion of this great system of internal improvements, in a measure destroyed his influence, for when the scheme failed, his popularity declined, and although he was ambitious to become a United States Senator for which he was a candidate, he never realized his hopes, but was defeated by Oliver H. Smith in 1836. In 1839, he was again a candidate, but was again defeated—this time by Albert S. White. Governor Noble died at his home near Indianapolis, February 8th, 1844, at the age of fifty years, and was buried in Greenlawn Cemetery; afterward, his remains and those of his wife were removed to Crown Hill Cemetery. The news of his death was received with general expressions of regret; a public meeting was held and resolutions on his death were prepared and published. Funeral services were held in the M. E. Church and were conducted by Rev. L. W. Berry, assisted by Rev. Dr. Gurley and Rev. Henry Ward Beecher. Governor Noble possessed many pleasing qualities and had a large circle of warm personal friends. He was tall and slender of form, and of delicate constitution. His countenance was mild, his nature sympathetic, his disposition cheerful. He was a popular Governor, and a great favorite in society. Governor Noble's father was a slave owner, and some of the slaves had been sold out of the family when he was a boy. After he came to Indianapolis, he bought back these old servants, brought them to Indiana and took care of them as long as he lived, and provided for them in his will.

David Wallace was the sixth Governor of Indiana. He was born in Mifflin County, Pennsylvania, April 24th, 1799. When but a small boy, his father removed to Ohio, where he lived until he reached young manhood. In 1821, he graduated from West Point, and entered the army at Lieutenant of Artillery, but soon resigned his commission and joined his father at Brookville, Indiana; here he studied law and began the practice of his profession. In 1831, he was elected Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana, and was re-elected in 1834. In 1837, at the age of thirty-eight, he was elected Governor of Indiana. Governor Wallace was a strong advocate of the internal improvement system and it was during his term of office that the system failed. After serving the State as Governor for three years, he went back to the practice of law. In 1841, he was elected a member of the United States House of Representatives. He was again a candidate for Congress in 1843, but this time was defeated, and again returned to the practice of his profession. In 1850 he was chosen a delegate to the second Indiana Constitutional Convention. In 1856 Governor Wallace was elected judge of the court, which office he continued to fill until his death, which occurred September 4th, 1859, when at the age of sixty years. Governor Wallace was a cultured, well-bred gentleman; he was a lover of books, an excellent reader, and so good a speaker that he won the reputation of an orator. In his younger days, he was remarkable for the symmetry and beauty of his person. His hair and eyes were dark, his countenance expressive, his manner courteous and kind. Governor Wallace was the first Indiana Governor to issue a proclamation appointing Thanksgiving Day, a custom now so universal.

Samuel Bigger was born in Warren County, Ohio, March 20th, 1802, and became the seventh Governor of Indiana, in 1840, at the age of thirty-eight years. His father was a pioneer of Ohio, and for years was a member of the General Assembly of that State. The life of the pioneer was not suited to Samuel, who was of delicate constitution, and fond of books and of study. Unfit for the hard work on the farm, he entered college and graduated with honors, after which he studied law and began its practice in Liberty, Indiana, in 1829, but soon removed to Rushville. In 1834 he was elected a member of the Indiana House of Representatives, and the following year was re-elected, after which he became a judge of the court. In 1840, he was elected Governor of Indiana. Three years later he was a candidate for re-election, but was defeated by James Whitcomb. Governor Bigger entered upon the duties of his office when Indiana was almost in a state of bankruptcy, caused by the failure of the system of internal improvements. Soon after his term of office expired, he removed to Fort Wayne, and resumed the practice of his profession. He died in 1845, when forty-three years old, and was buried at Fort Wayne. Governor Bigger was over six feet tall, and well proportioned; his eyes were blue, his hair and complexion dark, his countenance expressive, kind and gentle. He was fond of music, had a fine voice, and was a skillful performer on the violin. He was a conscientious officer and an honorable man. Of him, one who knew him all his life has said: "He was a great man in goodness, great in heart and great in soul."

James Whitcomb.—Vermont was the birthplace of Indiana's eighth Governor, James Whitcomb, and he first

opened his eyes December 1st, 1795. When he was a little child, his father emigrated to Ohio and settled near Cincinnati. Like his predecessor, Governor Bigger, James Whitcomb cared more for his books than he did for the work of the farm; and like the fathers of many other boys before and since that day, Mr. Whitcomb feared his son would amount to but little among the busy pioneer people. However, by hard study, and by teaching school during his vacation to earn money, he was able to procure a college education, after which he began the study of law, and began to practice his profession in Kentucky. In 1824, he removed to Bloomington, Indiana, and continued his practice; soon, Governor Ray appointed him Prosecuting Attorney of his court circuit. In 1830 he was elected State Senator, and three years later he was re-elected. In 1836, he was appointed commissioner of the General Land Office, at Washington, a position he continued to fill until 1841, when he returned to Indiana and opened a law office in Terre Haute. In 1843, at the age of forty-eight years, he was elected Governor of Indiana, and served two terms as Chief Executive of the State. During the six years he served as Governor of Indiana, Governor Whitcomb did much to restore the State's credit, which had been greatly impaired by the failure of the internal improvement system. It was largely through his efforts that a sentiment was created among the people in favor of establishing benevolent and reformatory institutions, and he urged the importance of establishing a public school system, and a school fund. While he was Governor the war against Mexico was declared, and military organizations were formed under his directions to assist the government in this war. Governor

Whitcomb was elected a United States Senator in 1849, but was not permitted to serve out his term of office. He died in New York, October 4th, 1852, at the age of fifty-seven years. His remains were brought to Indianapolis, and were buried in Greenlawn Cemetery, and a monument to his memory was erected by the State. In form, Governor Whitcomb was tall, and compactly built. His complexion and eyes were dark, his countenance expressive, his manner kind; his dark hair fell in ringlets to his shoulders and he was always well dressed. He was courteous, talented and honest, and numbers one among Indiana's great men.

Paris C. Dunning was born near Greensboro, North Carolina, March 15th, 1806. He received his education at an academy in Greensboro. In 1823 he removed with his family to Bloomington, Indiana, where he studied law with Governor Whitcomb. After being admitted to the bar he began the practice of his profession at Bloomington. In 1833 he was elected a Representative to the State Legislature and was three times re-elected. In 1836 he was elected State Senator and continued to fill that office until 1840. In 1844 he was chosen Presidential Elector, and in 1846 was elected Lieutenant-Governor and when Governor Whitcomb resigned to accept the office of United States Senator, he became Acting Governor of Indiana. In 1850 he retired to the practice of his profession. In 1861 he was again elected to the State Senate and in 1863 was chosen President of that body.

Joseph A. Wright.—Pennsylvania is the native State of Indiana's tenth Governor, Joseph A. Wright, and April 17th, 1810, was his birthday. His parents emigrated to Indiana when he was a boy, and settled at Bloomington.

They were poor people and unable to give their son an education such as he desired, but Joseph having the "will" found the "way," and is an example of what a boy may do if he has determination, perseverance and industry. By performing the work of janitor at the State University—by making the fires, ringing the bell, and performing other work about the building—by working in a brick-yard and selling nuts he had gathered in the woods during vacation, the future Governor of Indiana earned money enough to buy his books and clothing and to pay his way in college for two years. When but twenty years of age he passed his examinations and received license to practice law, after which he removed to Rockville and opened an office. At the age of twenty-three he was elected a member of the State Legislature. In 1840 he became a member of the State Senate, and three years later was elected a Representative to the United States House of Representatives. In 1845 he was a candidate for re-election, but was defeated by Edward W. McGaughey. In 1849, at the age of thirty-nine, he was elected Governor of Indiana and was re-elected in 1852. In 1857, Governor Wright was appointed United States Minister to Prussia, where he remained two years. In 1862, Governor Morton appointed him to fill a vacancy in the United States Senate. In 1863, President Lincoln appointed him a commissioner to the Hamburg Exposition. In 1865, he was again appointed Minister to Prussia. He died at Berlin, March 11th, 1867, and his remains were brought to New York and were buried there. While Joseph A. Wright was Governor of Indiana the second Constitutional Convention was held, and during his term of office many important events in the history of the State took

place. During this period, the State Agricultural Society was formed, and although not a farmer, Governor Wright was deeply interested in farming and when the State Board of Agriculture was formed, he was made its president, and served in this capacity for three years. Governor Wright was a tall, spare man, with a large head and high forehead; his eyes were blue, his complexion and hair were light, and his features large and prominent. He was one of the most influential men in the State, and was honorable, both in public and private life.

Ashbel P. Willard became the eleventh Governor of Indiana when but thirty-six years old. He was born in Oneida County, New York, October 31st, 1820. After leaving college he began the study of law, and emigrated to Michigan in 1842; he remained there a short time, then made a trip to Texas, traveling the distance on horse-back. On his return he stopped in Kentucky, where he taught school, and soon after entered politics. He opened a law office in New Albany and so won the confidence of the people that in 1850, he was elected a member of the House of Representatives, where he soon became a leader. In 1852, he was elected Lieutenant-Governor, and in 1856 he was elected Governor of Indiana, defeating Oliver P. Morton. Governor Willard was a strong partisan, and not only won friends but also made many political enemies by his policy while in office. While serving as Governor his health became impaired and leaving his official duties in the hands of the Lieutenant-Governor, he went to Minnesota hoping to regain his strength, but his life was near its close, and he died on October 4th, 1860, at the age of forty years. He was the first Indiana Governor to die in office. His remains

were brought to Indianapolis, where they lay in state for three days and were viewed by thousands of people. Governor Willard had a pleasing personality. His eyes were blue, his hair auburn, his complexion fair. His voice was fine, and as an orator he was eloquent and persuasive. His nature was kind and generous, and his ability was recognized by both his friends and his enemies.

Abram A. Hammond.—On the death of Governor Willard, Abram A. Hammond became the twelfth Governor of Indiana. He was forty-six years old, and was born in Vermont, March 21st, 1814. He was the first Lieutenant-Governor to become Governor on account of death. When but six years old, Abram Hammond removed with his parents to Brookville, Indiana. Like many of his predecessors, he chose law as his profession, and began its practice at Greenfield in 1835. He remained there five years and then removed to Columbus, where he became prosecuting attorney of his circuit. In 1846, he removed to Indianapolis, but only remained one year; he then removed to Cincinnati, but returned to Indianapolis in 1849, and was made judge of the court. Three years later he went to California and opened a law office, but in 1855 again returned to Indiana and settled at Terre Haute. The following year he was elected Lieutenant-Governor. After the death of Governor Willard he served the remaining three months of his term as Governor. Governor Hammond was a very able man. In person he was of fine appearance. He was of medium height and symmetrically formed. His eyes, hair and complexion were dark, his expression kind and gentle, his manner frank, dignified

and self-possessed. For several years Governor Hammond was a sufferer from rheumatism and was compelled to walk by the aid of crutches. Other diseases attacked him and he went to Denver, Colorado, to try to regain his lost health. He died in Denver, August 27th, 1874. His remains were brought to Indianapolis, where they were received with honor, and were buried at Crown Hill Cemetery.

Henry S. Lane.—Kentucky gave to Indiana her thirteenth Governor, Henry S. Lane; he served her but briefly, however, as Chief Executive, and resigned his office two days after his inauguration, to accept the office of United States Senator, to which the General Assembly of Indiana elected him. Henry S. Lane was born in Montgomery, Kentucky, February 11th, 1811. After completing his education, he studied law, and began its practice at Crawfordsville, Indiana, in 1835. He soon became very popular with the people of Montgomery County, and in 1837, he was elected a Representative to the State Legislature. In 1840, he was elected to fill a vacancy in Congress, and the following year was re-elected. When war was declared against Mexico, Mr. Lane was active in the support of the United States government, and not only made speeches in favor of annexing Texas, but raised a company of volunteers, was chosen Major of a regiment, and afterward became Lieutenant-Colonel, and served until his regiment was mustered out of service. He then returned to Indiana and in 1849 was a candidate for Congress, but was defeated by Joseph E. McDonald. In 1860, Colonel Lane was elected Governor of Indiana, and Oliver P. Morton was elected Lieutenant-Governor. On January 14th, 1861, they were inaug-

urated, and two days later Governor Lane resigned to accept the position of United States Senator. After his term of office in the Senate had expired, he returned to his home in Crawfordsville, and did not again enter public life. On June 19th, 1881, after a brief illness, he died and was buried at Oak Hill Cemetery, near Crawfordsville. The news of his death was received with sorrow and regret by the people all over the State. By order of Governor Porter, all the State offices were draped in mourning for thirty days, and the officers of State attended the funeral in a body. Many noted persons as well as a large concourse of neighbors and friends were present. Governor Lane was tall and slender of form, somewhat stooped about the shoulders. The expression of his thin face was kind and gentle. He wore a long beard, which during the last years of his life was snow-white. He was a talented and cultured gentleman, greatly loved in life and mourned in death. He was forty-nine years old when he became Governor of Indiana, and sixty when he died.

Oliver P. Morton.—So much has been said of Oliver P. Morton in the war chapter of this book, that this sketch of his life will necessarily be brief. Everywhere he was known as Indiana's great War Governor, and he deserved the title, as well as the praise which a grateful people have lavished upon him. He was the first Indiana Governor born on "Hoosier" soil, and in character, was as rugged as were his early surroundings. His birthplace was Saulsbury, Wayne County, and he was born August 4th, 1823. When a boy, he attended school at Centerville, Indiana, but the family were poor and he was obliged to quit school at the age of fifteen years, after which he learned the hatter's

trade. In 1843, he entered Miami University, where he remained for two years. He then began the study of law, and afterward the practice, in Centerville. In 1852 he was elected judge of his circuit, and later he attended law school in Cincinnati. In 1853 he returned to his practice at Centerville. In 1856 he was a candidate for Governor, but was defeated by Ashbel P. Willard. In 1860, he was elected Lieutenant-Governor; two days after his inauguration, on resignation of Governor Lane, he became Governor of Indiana. He was then thirty-seven years old. Three months later the country was involved in the war for the Union, but as Governor Morton's part in guiding the "ship of State" through this great conflict has been related elsewhere, it will be omitted here. In 1864, he was re-elected Governor, defeating Hon. Joseph E. McDonald. The following year his health became greatly impaired and he left the affairs of State in the hands of Lieutenant-Governor Baker, and went abroad. Returning after a few months, he again resumed his duties. In 1867, he was elected United States Senator, and was re-elected in 1873. Governor Morton was for several years a victim of partial paralysis, and while in the West, on official business for the government, he was again stricken with this dread disease, from which he never recovered. He died at his home in Indianapolis, November 1st, 1877, surrounded by his family and friends. The death of Governor Morton caused widespread grief, not only in his own State but all over the country. Indianapolis was a city of mourning. For nearly two days his remains lay in state in the Court House, and every mark of respect was shown to the memory of the dead statesman. The United States Senate adopted resolutions

on his death, and many noted men were in attendance at his funeral, which took place at Roberts Park Church, and his remains were interred at Crown Hill Cemetery. Governor Morton was fifty-four years old at the time of his death.

Conrad Baker was born in Franklin County, Pennsylvania, February 12th, 1817, and was educated at a college in Gettysburg. After completing his college course he studied law, was admitted to the bar and entered upon the practice of his profession at Gettysburg in 1839. Two years later he emigrated west and settled at Evansville, Indiana, where he resided until 1867. In 1845 he was elected to the General Assembly of the State of Indiana and served one term. In 1852 he was elected judge of the circuit court of Warrick County. In 1856 he was nominated Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana, without his knowledge and without being a candidate, but was defeated at the election. In 1861 he was commissioned Colonel of the First Indiana Cavalry. In 1864 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana, and on the resignation of Governor Morton became Acting Governor. In 1868 he was elected Governor of the State. At close of his term of office he returned to the practice of his profession. In character Governor Baker was upright and conscientious. He was of fair complexion, blue eyes and light hair. He died in Indianapolis, April 23, 1885, and was buried at Evansville, Indiana.

Thomas A. Hendricks, Indiana's sixteenth Governor, was born on a farm near Zanesville, Ohio, September 7th, 1819. In 1822 his parents removed to Shelby County, Indiana, where he attended the common schools. At the proper age he entered Hanover College from which he graduated and entered upon the study of law. He was admitted to the bar

and entered upon the practice of his profession at Shelbyville, Indiana. In 1848 he was elected to the State Legislature and was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1850-51. In 1851 he was elected to the National House of Representatives, and was re-elected two years later. In 1854 he was again a candidate for Representative but was defeated. In 1855 he was appointed a Commissioner of the General Land Office, under President Pierce. In 1860 he was nominated for Governor of Indiana but was defeated by Henry S. Lane. Two years later he was elected to the United States Senate in which he served six years. In 1872 he was elected Governor of Indiana. In 1876 he was nominated Vice-President of the United States but was defeated with Governor Tilden. In 1884 he was elected Vice-President but did not live to serve out his term of office. He died in Indianapolis, in November, 1886, and was buried at Crown Hill Cemetery. Governor Hendricks was a man of fine personal appearance and commanding presence. His manner was unassuming yet fascinating; his private life irreproachable. His mind was broad and analytic. He was shrewd in politics and was a brilliant debater. It has been said of him that he was an "ideal citizen and friend."

James D. Williams was born at Pickaway, Ohio, January 6th, 1808. Ten years later his family removed to Indiana and settled near Vincennes. The State was still in its infancy, and the little education which the future Governor received, he procured at the log school-houses of the pioneer days. What he lacked in education he made up in reading and study outside of school. His youth and young manhood were spent among the hardy pioneers, and being strong and athletic, he did his share in the clearings, in the harvest-

fields and at the log-rollings of those days. When he was twenty years old, his father died, and the responsibility of caring for the family fell upon him. In 1843 he was elected a Representative to the State Legislature, and for more than thirty years he was almost continuously in the Senate, or House of Representatives. In 1872 he was a candidate for United States Senator, but was defeated by Governor Morton. In 1874, he was elected a member of the United States House of Representatives from the Vincennes district. While at Washington he received the unexpected news that he had been nominated Governor of Indiana. His political opponents ridiculed the plain old farmer, and as a mark of disrespect, nick-named him "Blue Jeans." His friends took up the name and used it to his advantage, and "Blue Jeans" came to be a political war-cry. The opposing candidate was Benjamin Harrison, afterward President of the United States, and when the votes were counted Blue Jeans was elected. Governor Williams was an earnest and conscientious officer, and discharged his duties faithfully and well. He was the first farmer ever elected Governor of Indiana, and the second Governor to die in office. The news of his death, which occurred at Indianapolis, November 20th, 1880, after a very brief illness, spread rapidly over the State and marked respect was shown him by the people of Indiana. His remains lay in state for two days, and were viewed by thousands of people after which, accompanied by hundreds of prominent citizens, they were taken by special train to Vincennes, where they again lay in state, and were buried near his home at Wheatland. In person, Governor Williams was tall and spare of figure, with sharp prominent features, gray eyes and dark

hair and whiskers. In character he was honorable and upright, not easily drawn from the path of duty by either friend or foe; of him it has been said: "Measured by the best standard, Governor Williams was a worthy citizen, a faithful public servant, a good man." He became Governor of Indiana at the age of sixty-nine and died at seventy-two.

Isaac P. Gray was born in Chester County, Pennsylvania, October 18th, 1828. He received a common school education and engaged in mercantile business at New Madison, Ohio. In 1855 he removed to Union City, Indiana, where he continued the mercantile business, and later, entered the practice of law. When the war for the Union began he commanded the 106th Indiana regiment. In 1866 he was a candidate for Congress but was not elected. In 1868 he was elected to the State Senate where he served four years. In 1870 he was appointed United States Minister to the Island of St. Thomas, West Indies, but did not accept the position. In 1876 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor and on the death of Governor Williams became Acting Governor. In 1884 he was elected Governor of Indiana. In 1893 he was appointed Minister to Mexico, by President Cleveland. In January, 1895, he was at Indianapolis on leave of absence, where he attended the farewell reception given by Governor Matthews; he immediately returned to Mexico but was stricken with paralysis on the journey and died soon after his arrival at the City of Mexico. His remains were returned to Indianapolis and placed in the State Capitol, on February 22d. The Legislature adjourned and the State officers attended the funeral which was held at Union City, and every respect was shown his memory.

Albert G. Porter was the second Indiana Governor born on the soil. His father was a Pennsylvanian, and a soldier in the war of 1812. At the end of the war he settled at Lawrenceburg, Indiana, and here the future Governor was born. The family afterward removed to Kentucky where Albert and his brother were given the management of a ferry-boat across the Ohio River, nearly opposite Lawrenceburg, and on the regular route of travel between Indiana and Kentucky. Out of the allowance he received for running this ferry, he saved enough money to enter college, and left to the care of others the ferry and little skiff in which he had rowed many notable people across the river, and entered Hanover College, and afterward Asbury (now DePauw) University, from which he graduated in 1843. Returning to Lawrenceburg he began the study and practice of law. In 1853 he received from Governor Wright the appointment of Reporter of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of Indiana, to fill a vacancy, and the following year he was elected to the same position. In 1858 he was elected a Representative to Congress and was re-elected two years later. At the close of his term of office he returned home and resumed the practice of his profession. Afterward he received the appointment of Comptroller of the United States Treasury. In 1880, he was elected Governor of Indiana to succeed Governor Gray. In character Governor Porter was manly and generous of heart. His features were pleasing, his manner courteous, his disposition cheerful and frank.

Alvin P. Hovey was born in Posey County, Indiana, September 6th, 1821. His early life was one of hardship and deprivation. He was unable to attend any but the com-

mon schools of the county, but this rudimentary education he supplemented by hard study after leaving school. He was admitted to the bar in 1843, and began its practice at Mt. Vernon, Indiana. In 1850 he was elected a member of the Constitutional Convention after which he was chosen judge of his district, and in 1854 he was made Judge of the Supreme Court. In 1855 he was appointed United States District Attorney, by President Pierce. When the war of the Rebellion began he entered the army as Colonel of the 24th Indiana regiment, and was afterward promoted to Brigadier-General. After the close of the war he was appointed United States Minister to Peru, which office he held for five years, when he resigned and returning to Indiana resumed the practice of law. In 1886 he was elected a Representative to Congress, and in 1888 was elected Governor of Indiana. Governor Hovey was taken ill and died at the Denison Hotel in Indianapolis, November 23d, 1891, and was buried at Mt. Vernon. In appearance Governor Hovey was dignified and imposing. In character he was determined and self-reliant. He was a fine Latin scholar and a writer of both prose and poetry.

Ira J. Chase was born in Rockport, N. Y., December 7th, 1834, where his father was a farmer. He attended the public schools and graduated from a seminary in Medina, in that vicinity. When he was twenty years of age he removed with his parents to Chicago, which was then only a good-sized village; here he worked on a farm for a while, afterward becoming a trader. When the war for the Union began he joined the 19th Illinois Volunteers and served until discharged on account of disability in 1863. He was married to Rhoda I. Castle just before he entered the army

and after receiving his discharge he returned to the farm, but his health was delicate and he was obliged to abandon it. He then entered the ministry in the Christian Church, serving as pastor at Mishawaka, LaPorte, Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, Peoria, Illinois, Wabash and Danville, Indiana. In 1886 he was a candidate for Congress but was defeated. In 1887 he was elected Department Commander of the Grand Army of the Republic in which organization he was very popular. In 1888 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor of Indiana. On the death of Governor Hovey he succeeded to the office and served as Acting Governor for the remainder of the term. In 1892 he was a candidate for Governor but was defeated by Claude Matthews. After retiring from office, Governor Chase again took up his ministerial work, which he continued until the close of his life. He died of erysipelas in Lubec, Maine, May 11th, 1895, where he was conducting religious meetings. His remains were brought to Indianapolis and lay in state at the State House where thousands of people went to pay tribute of respect to his memory, after which they were interred at Crown Hill Cemetery. Governor Chase was small in stature with blue eyes and fair complexion. He had a remarkable gift to hold audiences, wherever and upon whatever topic he spoke. He was earnest, generous and sympathetic and was greatly loved by those who knew him.

Claude Matthews was born in Bath County, Kentucky, December 14th, 1845. From the farm where he spent his boyhood days he went to Central College at Danville, Kentucky, from which he graduated in 1867. A year later he was married to Miss Martha R. Whitcomb, the only daughter of Governor Whitcomb, and removed to Vermillion

County, Indiana, where he successfully engaged in farming and stock raising. In 1876 he was elected a member of the Indiana Legislature; in 1882 he was a candidate for State Senator but was defeated by a party vote. In 1890 he was elected Secretary of State, and in 1892 was elected Governor of Indiana. At the close of his official duties he returned to his home near Clinton and resumed his former avocation. While addressing an Old Settlers' Meeting at Meharry's Grove near Veedersburg, August 25, 1898, Governor Matthews was suddenly stricken with paralysis and died three days later. His death was a shock to the entire country. His remains were removed to Hazel Bluff Farm, Governor Matthews' country home, where, on August 31st, funeral services were conducted after which they were taken to the Presbyterian Church at Clinton and lay in state for three hours, and were then interred in the Clinton Cemetery. The funeral was attended by the Governor and State officials, and thousands of people gathered to pay respect to his memory. High tribute to his worth was paid by public men all over the State. Governor Matthews was a model of manly strength and vigor. He was almost six feet tall, well proportioned, with dark complexion, hair and eyes, and an attractive and winning personality. In character he was positive and upright, with strong intellect and gentle unaffected manner. As a speaker he was earnest, persuasive and convincing. He was a loyal citizen and a faithful friend. While serving the State as chief executive, he conducted affairs in such a manner as to gain the respect and approval of all. His private life was beautiful and in every way commendable, while his home relations approached the ideal.

James A. Mount, the fourth native born Indianian to become Governor of the State, was born in Montgomery County, March 23d, 1843. His boyhood days were spent in hard work on the farm and in attending the district schools which afforded him all the educational advantages he enjoyed. The education thus acquired he supplemented with hard study and extensive reading out of school. In 1862, when but nineteen years old, he enlisted in the famous 17th Indiana Volunteers which became a part of the far-famed Wilder's Brigade as mounted infantry, and was successively promoted to Corporal and Sergeant, and served until the end of the war. General Wilder, in a letter dated March 26th, 1896, bore testimony to the gallantry of the young soldier. After the close of the war he returned home and attended school for a year, then leased a farm and devoted all his energies to its cultivation. In the avocation of farming he was very successful, and became the possessor of one of the largest and best cultivated farms in his county. His ability as a farmer has long been recognized and he was regarded as authority on many subjects relating to farming and a popular speaker at farmers' assemblies throughout the country. In 1888 he was elected to the State Senate where he was at once recognized as one of the able and progressive men of that body. He was elected Governor in 1896, and entered upon the duties of the office in January, 1897. One of the distinctive features of his administration was to place the affairs of the State upon a business basis and the benevolent and penal institutions upon a non-partisan basis. In stature, Governor Mount was rather below the medium height, with a symmetrical and well-

formed figure, indicative of alertness and endurance. As a speaker he was concise in his statements and convincing in his arguments. He was a leader in the Presbyterian Church, and his private life was irreproachable. Early in life he was married to Miss Kate A. Boyd, of Boone County. Two days after the close of his successful administration the people of Indiana were shocked by the tidings of his death, which came without a moment's notice. No man was ever more sincerely mourned.

Winfield Taylor Durbin, the fifth native of the State to hold the office of Governor, was born in Lawrenceburg, May 4, 1847, the youngest of a large family. While a child his father removed to New Philadelphia, Washington County, where he owned a tannery. There the future Governor availed himself of the limited school facilities, and at an early age knew what hard work was in his father's business. When the Civil War began he was not fourteen years of age, yet he enlisted in the 16th Indiana Infantry but was rejected because of youth and an injury to one of his hands sustained while at work. Nevertheless he followed the regiment and saw service before his final enlistment in Company K, 139th Indiana Infantry in which he served to the close of the war. Upon his return home he engaged in teaching school for a time in Washington and Jackson Counties. Ambitious to fill a larger place he took a course in a commercial school in St. Louis, after which he found a place as bookkeeper in a prominent wholesale house in Indianapolis where his ability and industry led to rapid promotion. He was the con-

fidential credit man of the house when, in 1879, he moved to Anderson to fill a responsible position in a banking house with which he is now connected. He has since become a successful leader in large manufacturing and business enterprises. At the beginning of the Spanish-American war he was appointed Colonel of the 161st Indiana Volunteer Infantry which, under his direction, achieved the reputation of being one of the best in the service and was one of those selected for service in Cuba. Governor Durbin has always taken an active interest in public affairs but was never an aspirant for office until he became the Republican candidate for Governor, to which position he was elected November 6, 1900, and entered upon the discharge of his duties January 14, 1901. Before taking office he made a tour of the State's institutions and in his inaugural declared in favor of a non-partisan management of the State's institutions upon strictly business principles. Governor Durbin has a happy faculty for forcible, precise and clear statement. He is an affable gentleman, whose business training and experience make him cautious in decision but prompt in action. In 1875, Governor Durbin was married to Miss Bertha McCullough, of Anderson. Governor Durbin is a member of the First Methodist Episcopal Church in Anderson, a member of the Grand Army and prominent in the Masonic fraternity.

To the world of statesmanship, of science, literature and art, Indiana has contributed her share. Practically she has given two Presidents of the United States, for while William Henry Harrison was born in Virginia, and elected from Ohio, he was more closely identified with early Indiana than with any other locality. Forty-eight years after his inauguration and death, his grandson, Benjamin Harrison, was elected from Indiana to fill the highest office in the gift of the people, which he most worthily filled. He died in Indianapolis, March 13, 1901.

Two Vice-Presidents of the United States, Schuyler Colfax and Thomas A. Hendricks, were Indianians, and our State furnished three Speakers of the National House of Representatives; these were John W. Davis, Schuyler Colfax and Michael C. Kerr.

Some of the most brilliant orators and men prominent in public affairs are from Indiana. The list is too long to give in full, but among them may be mentioned Jesse D. Bright, Caleb B. Smith, Robert Dale Owen, Edward A. Hannegan, William S. Holman, Daniel W. Voorhees, Richard W. Thompson, John W. Foster, Joseph E. McDonald, and George W. Julian. Among the most prominent commanders in the war for the Union were Generals A. E. Burnside and Jeff. C. Davis, who were natives of the State. An Indianian, Admiral George Brown, for three years stood at the head of the United States Navy, and was one of its most brilliant and efficient officers. Among men of science, Indiana claims David S. Jordan, Dr. J. M. Coulter, David Dale Owen, E. T. Cox, Dr. Joseph U. Rose, Stanley Coulter, Amos W. Butler and many others.

Indiana has contributed to the world of literature, three of the most famous authors of the present day. Need I tell you that these three are Lew Wallace, James Whitcomb Riley and Maurice Thompson? While this trio has perhaps reached the highest point in literary fame, there are many other men and women who have, by their production of both prose and poetry, reflected honor upon our State. Among these may be mentioned Robert Dale Owen, Sarah T. Bolton, Edward Eggleston, Rose Hardwick Tharp, Joaquin Miller and later, William Dudley Foulke, Richard W. Thompson, W. P. Fishback, Will Cumback, Benjamin Harrison, Amos W. Butler and Benjamin S. Parker. Among the Indiana writers of history are John B. Dillon, John Clark Ridpath, William Wesley Woollen, William Watson Woollen, Jacob P. Dunn, W. H. English, Mrs. Thomas A. Hendricks, and W. H. Smith.

It is impossible to publish a complete list of Indiana's prominent men and women, but it is not amiss to say that they have taken their places among those who stand the highest in statesmanship, in art, in science and social reform.

APPENDICES.

APPENDIX A.

COUNTIES.

COUNTY.	ORGANIZED.	COUNTY SEAT.	FOR WHOM NAMED.
Adams	Feb. 7, 1835	Decatur	John Adams.
Allen	Dec. 17, 1823	Ft. Wayne	Col. John Allen.
Bartholomew	Jan. 8, 1811	Columbus	General Bartholomew.
Benton	Feb. 18, 1810	Fowler	Thomas H. Benton.
Blackford	Feb. 15, 1833	Hartford City	Judge Blackford.
Boone	Jan. 29, 1830	Lebanon	Ratliffe Boone.
Brown	Feb. 4, 1830	Nashville	Gen. Jacob Brown.
Carroll	Jan. 7, 1828	Delphi	
Cass	Dec. 18, 1828	Logansport	Lewis Cass.
Clark 1802	Jeffersonville	Gen. George R. Clark.
Clay	Feb. 12, 1825	Brazil	
Clinton	Jan. 29, 1830	Frankfort	De Witt Clinton.
Crawford	Jan. 29, 1818	English	Col. Wm. Crawford.
Daviess	Dec. 24, 1816	Washington	Colonel Davis.
Dearborn 1805	Lawrenceburg	Col. Henry Dearborn.
Decatur	Dec. 21, 1821	Greensburg	Commodore Decatur.
DeKalb	Feb. 7, 1835	Auburn	General DeKalb.
Delaware	Jan. 22, 1820	Muncie	An Indian tribe.
Dubois	Dec. 20, 1817	Jasper	Toussant Dubois.
Elkhart	Jan. 29, 1830	Goshen	
Fayette	Dec. 28, 1818	Connersville	LaFayette.
Floyd	Jan. 2, 1819	New Albany	
Fountain	Dec. 30, 1825	Covington	Major Fountain.
Franklin	Nov. 27, 1810	Brookville	Benjamin Franklin.
Fulton	Feb. 7, 1815	Rochester	Robert Fulton.
Gibson	Mar. 9, 1813	Princeton	Gen. John Gibson.
Grant	Feb. 10, 1831	Marion	Capt. Samuel Grant.
Greene	Jan. 5, 1821	Bloomfield	General Greene.
Hamilton	Jan. 8, 1823	Noblesville	Alexander Hamilton.
Hancock	Jan. 26, 1827	Greenfield	John Hancock.
Harrison	Oct. 11, 1808	Corydon	Gen. W. H. Harrison.
Hendricks	Dec. 20, 1823	Danville	Gen. Wm. Hendricks.
Henry	Dec. 31, 1821	New Castle	Patrick Henry.
*Howard	Dec. 28, 1846	Kokomo	Gen. T. A. Howard.
Huntington	Feb. 2, 1832	Huntington	Samuel Huntington.
Jackson	Dec. 18, 1815	Brownstown	Andrew Jackson.
Jasper	Feb. 7, 1835	Rensselaer	Sergeant Jasper.
Jay	Feb. 7, 1835	Portland	John Jay.
Jefferson	Nov. 23, 1810	Madison	Thomas Jefferson.
Jennings	Dec. 27, 1816	Vernon	Jonathan Jennings.
Johnson	Dec. 31, 1822	Franklin	
Knox	Jan. 14, 1790	Vincennes	
Kosciusko	Feb. 7, 1835	Warsaw	A Polish soldier.
LaGrange	Feb. 2, 1832	LaGrange	Home of LaFayette.
Lake	Jan. 28, 1836	Crown Point	Lake Michigan.
Laporte	Jan. 9, 1832	Laporte	
Lawrence	Jan. 7, 1818	Bedford	Captain Lawrence.

*Howard County and Tipton County were organized as Richardville County, out of the great Miama Reservation, Feb. 16, 1839; afterward Tipton was organized and Howard remained Richardville until 1846.

COUNTIES—CONTINUED.

COUNTY.	ORGANIZED.	COUNTY SEAT	FOR WHOM NAMED.
Madison.....	Jan. 4, 1823	Anderson.....	James Madison.
Marion.....	Dec. 31, 1821	Indianapolis	Gen. Francis Marion.
Marshall	Feb. 7, 1835	Plymouth	Chief Justice Marshall.
Martin.....	Jan. 17, 1820	Shoals	Major Martin.
Miami.....	Feb. 2, 1832	Peru	An Indian tribe.
Monroe.....	Jan. 14, 1818	Bloomington	James Monroe.
Montgomery.....	Dec. 21, 1822	Crawfordsville	General Montgomery.
Morgan.....	Dec. 31, 1821	Martinsville	General Morgan.
Newton.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Kentland.....	Sir Isaac Newton.
Noble.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Albion.....	Noah Noble.
Ohio.....	Jan. 4, 1844	Rising Sun	Ohio River.
Orange.....	Dec. 26, 1815	Paoli	A county in N. Carolina.
Owen.....	Dec. 21, 1818	Spencer.....	Col. Abram Owen.
Parke.....	Jan. 9, 1821	Rockville.....	Benjamin Parke.
Perry.....	Sept. 7, 1814	Cannelton	Commodore Perry.
Pike.....	Dec. 21, 1816	Petersburg	Gen. Z. M. Pike.
Porter.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Valparaiso	Commodore Porter.
Posey.....	Sept. 7, 1814	Mt. Vernon	Thomas Posey.
Pulaski.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Winamac.....	A Polish soldier.
Putnam.....	Dec. 31, 1821	Greencastle.....	General Putnam.
Randolph.....	Jan. 10, 1818	Winchester.....	A county in N. Carolina.
Ripley.....	Dec. 27, 1816	Versailles.....	Gen. E. W. Ripley.
Rush.....	Dec. 31, 1821	Rushville.....	Dr. Benjamin Rush.
Scott.....	Jan. 12, 1820	Scottsburg.....	Gen. Charles Scott.
Shelby.....	Dec. 31, 1821	Shelbyville.....	Isaac Shelby.
Spencer.....	Jan. 10, 1818	Rockport.....	Captain Spencer.
Starke.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Knox.....	
Steuben.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Angola.....	Baron Steuben.
St. Joseph.....	Feb. 29, 1830	South Bend.....	St. Joseph River.
Sullivan.....	Dec. 30, 1816	Sullivan.....	General Sullivan.
Switzerland.....	Sept. 7, 1814	Vevay.....	Switzerland.
Tippecanoe.....	Jan. 20, 1826	Lafayette.....	Tippecanoe River.
*Tipton.....	Jan. 15, 1844	Tipton.....	Gen. John Tipton.
Union.....	Jan. 5, 1821	Liberty.....	
Vanderburgh.....	Jan. 7, 1818	Evansville.....	Judge Vanderburgh.
Vermillion.....	Jan. 2, 1824	Newport.....	
Vigo.....	Jan. 21, 1818	Terre Haute.....	Francis Vigo.
Wabash.....	Jan. 22, 1835	Wabash.....	Wabash River.
Warren.....	Jan. 19, 1827	Williamsport.....	Gen. Jos. Warren.
Warrick.....	Mar 9, 1813	Boonville.....	Captain Warrick.
Washington.....	Dec. 21, 1813	Salem.....	George Washington.
Wayne.....	Nov. 27, 1810	Richmond.....	Gen. Anthony Wayne.
Wells.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Bluffton	
White.....	Feb. 1, 1834	Monticello.....	Colonel White.
Whitley.....	Feb. 7, 1835	Columbia City.....	Col. W. Whitley.

APPENDIX B.

GOVERNOR OF THE NORTHWESTERN TERRITORY.

Arthur St. Clair..... 1787-1800

GOVERNORS OF INDIANA TERRITORY.

William Henry Harrison..... 1800-1812

Thomas Posey..... 1812-1816

GOVERNORS OF INDIANA.

Jonathan Jennings..... 1816-1822

Ratliffe Boone..... 1822-....

William Hendricks..... 1822-1825

James B. Ray..... 1825-1831

Noah Noble..... 1831-1837

David Wallace..... 1837-1840

Samuel Bigger..... 1840-1843

James Whitcomb..... 1843-1848

Paris C. Dunning (acting)..... 1848-1849

Joseph A. Wright..... 1849-1857

Ashbel P. Willard..... 1857-1860

Abram A. Hammond..... 1860-1861

Henry S. Lane..... 1861-....

Oliver P. Morton..... 1861-1867

Conrad Baker..... 1867-1873

Thomas A. Hendricks..... 1873-1877

James D. Williams..... 1877-1880

Isaac P. Gray (acting)..... 1880-1881

Albert G. Porter..... 1881-1885

Isaac P. Gray..... 1885-1889

Alvin P. Hovey..... 1889-1891

Ira J. Chase (acting)..... 1891-1893

Claude Matthews..... 1893-1897

James A. Mount..... 1897-1901

Winfield T. Durbin..... 1901-....

APPENDIX C.

UNITED STATES SENATORS.

James Noble	1816-1831
Waller Tayler	1816-1825
William Hendricks	1825-1837
Robert Hanna (appointed).....	1831-....
John Tipton.....	1831-1839
Oliver H. Smith.....	1837-1843
Albert S. White.....	1839-1845
Edward A. Hannegan.....	1843-1849
Jesse D. Bright.....	1845-1861
James Whitcomb.....	1849-1852
Charles W. Cathcart (appointed).....	1852-1855
John Petit.....	1853-1857
Graham N. Fitch.....	1857-1861
Joseph A. Wright (appointed)	1861-1863
Henry S. Lane.....	1861-1867
David Turpie.....	1863-....
Thomas A. Hendricks.....	1863-1869
Oliver P. Morton.....	1867-1877
Daniel D. Pratt.....	1869-1875
Joseph E. McDonald.....	1875-1881
Daniel W. Voorhees.....	1877-1897
Benjamin Harrison.....	1881-1887
David Turpie.....	1887-1899
Charles W. Fairbanks.....	1897-....
Albert J. Beveridge.....	1899-....

TABULATED STATEMENT.

Lands granted by the United States to Indiana for internal improvements and other purposes:

For Common Schools (sixteenth sections).....	631,863.71	acres.
For University, College or Seminary.....	46,080.00	"
For Michigan Road.....	170,582.20	"
For Wabash and Erie Canal.....	1,439,279.41	"
For Permanent Seat of Government	2,560.00	"
Swamp lands.....	1,209,422.99	"
Saline lands.....	24,235.58	"
Total.....	3,524,022.99	acres.

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